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ABSTRACT

This publication reviews staff development in higher education as a key to reversing the deterioration of universities in developing nations and to fostering self-reliance and attaining institutional ideals. Part 1 describes the crisis in higher education in developing nations and considers expansion, supply of academic faculty, localization of staff, staff retention, new universities and disciplines, postgraduate studies, and women in higher education. Part 2 looks at staff development including challenges in academic development, professional and career development, instructional development, management skills, changing technology, and organizational environment and support. Key issues are faculty shortages and poor instruction for students. Part 3 describes policy directions for staff development. Part 4 reviews the structure and organization of staff development activities which include national and regional arrangements, networks, funding, and monitoring. Part 5 describes what staff development providers who responded to a survey have done to meet challenges in their field. Part 6 reviews international aid in staff development and covers north south relations, international assistance programs, and the impact of donor assistance. Part 7 draws together principal findings and outlines directions in staff development taking into consideration the needs specific to developing nations. In particular the chapter discusses key factors, the nature and scope of staff development, policy focuses, policy development and institutionalization of staff development, program structure and organization, funding, delivery mechanisms, and donor assistance. (Contains 69 references.) (JB)

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Hena Mukherjee
Jasbir S Singh

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Staff Development Approaches in Higher Education

Learning from Experience

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Contents

List of Tables *v*
List of Boxes *vi*
Acknowledgements *vii*
List of Abbreviations *viii*

Part 1 Higher Education in Crisis 1
Expansion in higher education 1
Supply of academic manpower 3
Localisation of staff 5
Staff retention 6
New universities and disciplines 8
Postgraduate studies 9
Women in higher education 9
New challenges and demands 9

Part 2 Perspectives on Staff Development 13
Staff development dimensions 13
Key issues in developing countries 14

Part 3 Policy Directions for Staff Development 17
Policy focus 17
Policy development 19

Part 4 Implementation: Structure and Organisation of Staff Development Programmes 29
Institutional arrangements 29
National arrangements 32
Regional arrangements 34
Networks 34
Funding 35
Perceptions of staff development functions 37
Monitoring, appraisal and reward 37
Constraints 41
Lessons drawn 42

Part 5 Meeting Staff Development Challenges 45
Academic development 45
Instructional skills 47
Professional and career development 47
Management skills 49
Coping with changing technology 49

Part 6 International Assistance in Staff Development 51
Nature of North-South relations 51
International assistance programmes 52
Impact of donor assistance 57

Part 7 Learning from Experience 59
Determinants of staff development 59
Nature and scope of staff development 60
Policy focus 60
Policy development and instutionalising staff development 61
Structure and organisation of staff development programmes 62
Funding 63
Staff development delivery mechanisms 63
Donor assistance for staff development 64

References 65
Tables 69

List of Tables

Table 1	Student enrolment in universities for selected countries: 1975-89	69
Table 2	University staff increase/decrease in selected countries: 1975-89	70
Table 3	Higher education student population as a percentage of the 20-24 year group in selected countries	71
Table 4	Higher degree student enrolment in universities for selected countries: 1975-89	72
Table 5	Distribution of academic staff in higher education, by qualification, in selected countries: 1989-90	73
Table 6	Distribution of academic staff in higher education, by post held, in selected countries: 1989/90	75
Table 7	Distribution of students graduating in higher education, by field of study, in selected countries: 1991	80

List of Boxes

Box 1	The condition of the universities	2
Box 2	Critical staff shortages in Zimbabwe and Malawi	6
Box 3	Women in higher education and research institutions	10
Box 4	Staff Development Programme: University of Papua New Guinea	17
Box 5	The Centre for Higher Education and Development, Manitoba	18
Box 6	The Tertiary Education Institute, Queensland	19
Box 7	University of British Columbia: Philosophy and Policy Statements	20
Box 8	Quality assurance in Europe	21
Box 9	Quality assurance in the Netherlands	22
Box 10	Academic Audit Unit	23
Box 11	Recommendations on strategy	24
Box 12	University Staff Development – A Challenge for the 1990s and Beyond: Harare Recommendations on Staff Development in Eastern and Southern African Universities	26
Box 13	Recommendations on organisation	31
Box 14	Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education, University of Delhi	33
Box 15	The University Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa Network (USDESA)	36
Box 16	Student evaluation of teaching	38
Box 17	Departmental Reviews	38
Box 18	Reviewing Departments	39
Box 19	Performance-related promotion procedures	40
Box 20	Teaching reforms bite the dust	43
Box 21	Categories of leave	46
Box 22	Staff development programme course topics	48
Box 23	Selected international assistance programmes in staff development of higher education institutions	54
Box 24	Malaysia-IDP Core Programme	55
Box 25	IDRC's Fellowships and Awards	56
Box 26	What developing Commonwealth countries want	58

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List of Abbreviations

AAU	Association of African Universities
AIU	Association of Indian Universities
ASC(s)	Academic Staff College(s), India
BC	British Council
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CVCP	Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals
CPDSE	Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education (India)
DAE	Donors to African Education
DSE	Deutsche Stifting fur internationale Entwicklung (German Foundation for International Development)
EARDHE	European Association for Research and Development in Higher Education
ENSDHE	European Network Staff Development in Higher Education
NIEPA	National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, India
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USDESA	University Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa
USDTU	Universities Staff Development and Training Unit, UK
USP	The University of the South Pacific
UWI	University of the West Indies

Part 1: Higher Education in Crisis

1 Everywhere in the developing world, higher education institutions confront deteriorating conditions brought on by the rapid expansion of higher education of the last three decades exacerbated by diminishing resources to support it. Current literature on the subject refers consistently to decline in the quality of teaching and learning, overcrowding of lecture rooms, inadequate staffing, deteriorating physical facilities, poor library resources, insufficient scientific equipment, poor quality staff at all levels, lack of properly conducted research, low staff morale, inadequate salary and other rewards for staff, graduate unemployment, mismatch between educational output and labour market needs (Salmi, 1991: 2-4). Costs of universities are high, while they are alleged to be socially inequitable and economically inefficient. Universities, it is claimed, are failing in their primary functions: they provide teaching which is inadequate, research which has withered and service to the community for which there is little motivation or support.

2 Attention has been drawn to the 'grim knowledge' among academics in Africa that the nature of the university experience today is profoundly different for many teachers and students, so different and so inferior that some wonder whether it can rightly be called a university experience at all (Coombe, 1991: 2, see Box 1).

3 It is recognised that a quantum increase is needed in the improvement of the quality of higher education in developing countries. To reverse the situation, foster self-reliance and to attain their ideals, the human resource factor is widely recognised to be the key. In the past higher education institutions have failed to build up their staff capacities adequately, contributing to the continuing crisis faced by developing countries. Enhancing staff knowledge and competencies is now viewed as a significant catalyst in the process of change and reform. It is within this context that institutions are focusing their attention on the enhancement of staff capacities in an effort to breathe new life into higher education development.

Expansion in higher education

4 Many of the staff development problems and issues in developing countries of Asia, the Caribbean and Africa are embedded in the rapid rise in enrolments with the attendant need to recruit qualified staff. Influenced by the human capital investment theory, during the last two decades countries at all levels of development expanded their higher education systems rapidly (see Table 1). There has not, however, been a matching increase in resources and this has been a major contributor to the deterioration.

Box 1 The condition of the universities

One of the abiding impressions of this consultation is the sense of loss, amounting almost to grief, of some of the most senior professors in the older African universities as they compare the present state of their universities with the vigor, optimism and pride which the same institutions displayed twenty or thirty years ago. It is not just the universal regret of age at the passing of youth, nor the sad awareness that a generation of unique academic pioneers has almost run its course. It is also the grim knowledge that the nature of the university experience today is profoundly different for many teachers and students, so different and so inferior that some wonder whether it can rightly be called a university experience at all.

... the elements are familiar enough in most universities: the student accommodation squeeze, the failure or decline of municipal services, the financial privation of students, crowded classrooms, teaching reduced to chalk and talk, teachers who must hustle for additional income, libraries whose acquisition votes have been nominal for years on end.

The African academic community knows intimately what the deterioration of their universities has cost. Few African university people dissent from the view that there is a crisis in African higher education, and that it is long-running and shows no early sign of abating.

A minister of higher education talks about the strangulation of the universities in Africa, of universities being given a starvation diet. A Dean's monthly take-home pay in one university translates to US $60. Monthly salaries often do not last more than a week or two. Academic staff make ends meet by growing bananas, keeping chickens or zero-grazing cattle in their back-yards, or by coaching students privately after hours, or taxi-driving, or trading, or a combination of these. A professor remarks matter-of-factly that it is difficult to find some of his staff in the afternoons because they are on their second jobs. Consultancies are prized because they pay well, often in forex, and – with some reservations – they are professionally acceptable and may even be academically challenging.

Repeatedly one is told that the universities' gravest problem is to retain able staff. Young lecturers leave because they are unable to advance themselves by research and publication, or by acquiring advanced degrees. Senior lecturers and professors have obligations to growing families, and may have suffered sharp declines in real income and status. Many can exploit their seniority and academic records in the labour market, at home or abroad.

However important salary levels are, university people do not say much to a visitor about their own financial privations, and usually only if prompted. What they will talk about with animation is their inability to do the job they are trained to do, hired to do and want to do. Many African academics suffer a loss of professional self-esteem. Of all the casualties of the years of austerity in the African universities, the damage to morale is particularly serious.

Source: TREVOR COOMBE, *A Consultation on Higher Education in Africa: A Report to the Ford Foundation and the Rockefeller Foundation*, London, 1991

5 Growth rates in developing countries were often higher than in some high-income countries. With growth at times between 5-10 per cent and in some years exceeding 10 per cent, the financial resources of these developing countries were naturally stretched, able to provide minimum physical facilities, low staff wages but few alternative inducements such as support for research and teaching.

6 Between 1975-89, developed countries on the whole experienced a modest annual growth of around 5 per cent in higher education enrolments (Australia, Sweden, Switzerland). However, those which emphasised open access to higher education moved ahead with much larger annual increases: Canada (57 per cent) and Finland (73.3 per cent). Industrialising countries in Asia equally placed considerable pressure on their higher education systems to turn out skilled manpower. Japan, for instance, saw its enrolments leap by 37 per cent annually during this period.

7 At different times during this period higher education enrolments in middle- and low-income countries enjoyed a considerable spurt. Among middle-income countries, Botswana, Mauritius, Malaysia and Zimbabwe experienced periods of growth in excess of 10 per cent per annum. Over the 1975-89 period Botswana's higher education grew by around 9 per cent, Malaysia's by 14 per cent, and Zimbabwe's by 25 per cent. On the average, middle-income countries were adding to their enrolments by as much as 10 per cent annually.

8 Similarly, low-income countries were under pressure to maintain a good growth rate. For the period 1975-89, Kenya and Nigeria averaged annual growth rates of 27 per cent and 37 per cent, while India and Sri Lanka recorded an annual increase of 47 per cent and 68 per cent respectively.

Supply of academic manpower

9 Most developing countries have found it difficult to match staff recruitment with the increase of student growth: suggesting that classes were larger and the teaching load much greater with student contact considerably reduced. Some of the middle-income countries managed to keep abreast with recruitment, for example, Botswana and Jordan, but during the 1980s most countries were forced to compromise and allow student demand to be met, even when staff could not be recruited to the same extent (see Table 2).

10 The reasons for the declining staff: student ratio must be found primarily in the worsening economic conditions of those countries which could not afford to employ sufficient numbers of staff. But attention must also be paid to the fact that recruitment was sometimes quite difficult because of unavailability of suitable staff.

11 Despite the rapid increase in enrolments in most developing countries, the higher education systems of these countries remain small in relation to the population (see Table 3). By 1988, only a few middle-income countries had more than 15 per cent of their 20-24 age cohort enrolled in institutions of higher education: they included Ecuador (25 per cent), Egypt (19.6 per cent), Mexico (15.2 per cent), Peru (30.7 per cent), Philippines (16.1 per cent) and

Thailand (16.1 per cent). These enrolment ratios marked a considerable increase from 1970 when Ecuador had a ratio of 7.9 per cent; Egypt 8 per cent; Mexico 5.9 per cent; Peru 11.1 per cent, Philippines, 19.8 per cent; and Thailand merely 2.7 per cent. In the lower-income countries enrolment ratios are still below 5 per cent. Despite rapid expansion, in 1989 Bangladesh still enrolled only 3.6 per cent of the age group and Pakistan enrolled 4.8 per cent of its age cohort; while China, Ghana and Kenya had achieved ratios of 1.7 per cent, 1.5 per cent and 1.6 per cent respectively. In contrast to these, in most of the high-income countries enrolment ratios have moved up from between 15-20 per cent in 1970 to above 30 per cent and in some cases (Canada, Finland and USA) exceed 40 per cent.

12 Although enrolment ratios in both industrialised and developing countries have increased significantly since 1970, the gap between these two groups of countries in terms of output of graduates and high-level academic manpower is expected to remain problematic. During this period Australia's enrolment ratio increased by 15 per cent, that of France by 17.7 per cent, and the United Kingdom by 9.4 per cent. For the same period only a few of the advanced developing countries have managed a comparable growth rate: Colombia increased by 9.0 per cent, Egypt by 11.6 per cent, Mexico by 8.3 per cent, Peru by 21.0 per cent and Thailand by 13.7 per cent. Some of the middle-income and most of the low-income countries have struggled to achieve a growth of around 3 per cent in their enrolment ratios. As a consequence, the supply of higher education students to developing country institutions will continue to be inadequate to fulfil all their human resource needs.

13 In the developing countries the number of graduates with higher degrees is also too small to provide the challenging and competitive environment necessary for ensuring that only the best are recruited as university staff (see Table 4). Developed countries are able to recruit personnel of high academic calibre to cope with the expansion of the university system. Selected staff have to compete fiercely in an open academic market with a large number of qualified persons. Such a process ensures that those who join the university possess adequate credentials. In contrast, developing country universities have to recruit from a small base of qualified persons.

14 An analysis of academic staff qualifications based on data from a very limited sample of universities for 1991 revealed that university teachers in developed countries were on the whole very much better qualified than their counterparts in the developing countries (see Table 5). About 55 per cent of academic staff in Australia and Britain were found to be with PhDs. In developing middle- and low-income countries the more established universities could boast of around 40 per cent staff with the same level of qualification, but some of their newer universities had only about 10-20 per cent staff with PhDs.

15 Similarly the developed country universities possess a high proportion of senior academics (see Table 6). In 1991, in Germany and Japan nearly 20-30 per cent staff are employed at professorial level, while in Britain nearly 10 per cent of staff are appointed at this level. In middle-income countries less than 10 per cent were generally employed at this level, often below 5 per cent of the staff being at this level of appointment.

16 The data in Tables 5 and 6 also reveal an experienced and better qualified staff in established universities in low-income countries with very large higher education systems such as India and Nigeria. However, in these countries doubts about the quality of this large pool of academics are often legitimately raised. They are the product of a great deal of inbreeding which produces graduates that have little international exposure and at best may continue to reproduce the mediocre teaching and research they have themselves experienced. Academics in these countries are the product of a very rapidly expanding system which continually inflates qualifications, leaving much scope for improvement in their capacities as university teachers and researchers. When in employment the general level of remuneration and poor working conditions force many of them to seek alternative employment or supplementary jobs.

17 Without doubt, the most crucial problem in staff development in Third World countries is that of maintaining a supply of quality academics to teach and carry out research in their universities. Rapid expansion has seriously stretched their capacity and, if future expansion continues at the same rate, the universities will face a task of great magnitude in order to maintain an adequate supply of quality staff.

Localisation of staff

18 Universities play a crucial part in national development. One of the most pertinent needs here is perhaps the creation and sustenance of an able pool of indigenous staff who identify with national and regional concerns, thus maximising the efficient use of scarce financial resources. Staff development needs for properly trained indigenous academic manpower are still critical in most developing countries. The Association of African Universities (AAU) reports acute manpower needs in many African universities. Similarly, Papua New Guinea has faced a difficult task in getting sufficient numbers of its local graduates to attain an educational level that enables them to become university teachers. Even when sufficient numbers in some of the older established disciplines are available, the staffing of new departments and the addition of new disciplines to the curriculum poses problems.

19 As a short-term solution to high-level academic manpower shortages most developing countries resorted to hiring expatriate staff from the developed countries. However, the recruitment of staff from overseas is not seen as a long-term viable solution, though a small proportion of overseas staff may be desirable to invigorate the local academic staff. Not surprisingly then, in many developing countries there is an overwhelming concern to increase the proportion of local staff as opposed to foreign or expatriate staff. In many cases, the replacement of expatriate staff with local staff has to be carried out in haste as nationalist policies are intolerant of a high proportion of expatriate staff dominating the teaching and research in these universities. The switch is sometimes made at the expense of desired academic standards as viewed by the developed world.

Staff retention

20 Developing countries confront the further problem of retaining their academic staff in higher education institutions. Some who have been sent abroad for training never return and are absorbed into the institutions of the industrialised countries. Others who return or are trained locally often find the incentives of the private sector or other more prosperous developing countries difficult to resist. The efforts of the University of Khartoum, Sudan, to build up good core staff have been weakened by the drain to rich neighbouring countries and to newer universities in Sudan. A shortage of foreign currency for overseas training combined with a shortage of facilities led to a 'stagnation, if not deterioration' in the level of academic performance (Maitru, 1990a: 35). Highly trained teachers and academics from Zimbabwe have been drawn into Namibia and neighbouring South Africa. A similar picture emerges from Zambia where there has been an exodus to non-university employment, into government departments, and to the private sector (see Box 2). In many of the fast developing

Box 2 Critical staff shortages in Zimbabwe and Malawi

As of June 1988, the University of Zimbabwe has been operating at an average staff vacancy rate of approximately 28 per cent. The vacancy rate is lower in the Humanities and Social Sciences and higher in the Science and Medical Faculties. In the Engineering Faculty, for example, the vacancy rate in June 1988 was 47.6 per cent and in Medicine it was 35 per cent while in the social sciences it was 17 per cent. A fairly large percentage of the existing staff (32 per cent) is composed of non-Zimbabweans. The percentage of expatriate staff is higher in Veterinary Science (72.1 per cent), Engineering (56.5 per cent) and Medicine (38 per cent) and lowest in Agriculture (22 per cent), Law (21 per cent) and Commerce (15 per cent).

Source: Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Establishment of a Second University or Campus to his Excellency the President, Chairman, P R C Williams, Government of Zimbabwe, Harare 1989

Malawi experiences similar shortages in the science and technology disciplines with a high proportion of expatriates in Engineering (52 per cent) and Science (48 per cent) and an overall expatriate staff of 30 per cent. Malawi staff training is often misdirected and not concentrated in areas in which expatriates are employed. The situation is made critical with the university's inability to retain its qualified local staff who leave for better salaried posts in the private sector or universities in neighbouring countries. Furthermore, it has been found that even among the 72 expatriates in the areas of engineering, science and humanities, there are 13 with only first degrees or diplomas and 27 with Masters degrees, implying that the university was unable to attract better qualified expatriates.

Source: Malawi: Higher Education Problems, Needs and Priorities, UNESCO, Paris, 1988

economies of Asia the universities constantly lose their best people to the higher waged industrial sector and the numerous parastatal research and service institutions that have been established and which are better resourced.

21 The poor monetary rewards paid to staff severely affects the ability of universities to retain their best academics. It has been said that all African university lecturers are 'underpaid and overloaded'. Unable to meet their basic needs from their salaries alone, most academics struggling for survival adopt a 'second job mentality'. It is now a necessity for most to seek additional sources of income. As a result motivation has shrunk, morale is low, and staff fail to devote efforts to university teaching and learning activities, an area of 'minor rewards' within the university (Bajah and Winkler, 1992: 50).

22 While detailed statistics on migration from universities is not available a recent World Bank report indicates that 'the problem of staff retention has reached critical proportions in many institutions'. In 1992 the University of Zimbabwe reported a vacancy rate of 34 per cent; in the University of Makerere 48 per cent of staff positions are not filled. It is argued that even when in post, the staff are not devoting their full time to university tasks, but may be preoccupied with jobs to supplement their incomes. At the Eduardo Mondlane University in Mozambique it has been recorded that nearly 75 per cent of staff are engaged in such supplementary activities, seriously eroding university capacity for teaching and research (Saint, 1992: 25).

23 In such circumstances where the pull factor from outside organisations is great, staff development strategies need to plan for staff training as well as building incentives into the systems in order to retain their brightest and most productive staff.

24 Developing country universities are now keenly aware that strategies need to be adopted to motivate academic staff to remain in teaching and research positions as well as to provide a meaningful learning experience to the students. Among the strategies proving fruitful, staff development activities have gained recognition for their contribution to job satisfaction and the renewal and improvement of personal motivation. These are known to comprise the essential ingredients for improved quality of teaching, and research, as well as student learning. Specially targeted staff development policies that inject sufficiently attractive incentives to recruit and retain key science and technology staff are of singular importance. Efforts need to be mounted, both nationally and internationally, that will significantly alter the working conditions of academics, providing them with the much needed motivation and proper orientation to the tasks they perform.

25 Most of the inducements have to be considered in the context of continued financial stringencies that will not permit a major increase in wages or the infusion of capital into the universities. Attention may have to be given to putting in place more flexible non-monetary reward structures which enable staff to draw benefits from the varied roles they play as teachers, researchers and consultants. Promotion criteria need to be worked out more carefully, giving full recognition to the context of their work, rewarding excellence in teaching and service to the community. Career paths need to be clear and visible at all levels. Opportunities for working at regional and international levels need to be

worked out and facilitated by university authorities. Avenues for publication should be made available, and proper weight given to the wide range of tasks academics perform. Far too often publishing in refereed international journals and recognition in the international community is set as the target with no provisions for enabling it to happen.

26 Young academics need support to improve their teaching, carry out research, access international knowledge and enter international networks. Universities must at least make the opportunities available and adopt policies that allow for career development and advancement to be realised. Such measures may go a long way in raising the morale of their staff. It has been the AAU experience that the mere introduction of staff development activities which help academics think about their roles and assist them to perform them better, has proved to be an effective morale booster.

New universities and disciplines

27 The establishment of new universities puts further pressure on the limited supply of available academic teachers in Third World countries. Between 1970 and 1980 Bangladesh and Malaysia added five universities, and in the last year Bangladesh has added two more. In Nigeria the number of universities grew from 13 in 1978 to 24 in 1983 and 31 in 1991 while in India the numbers have steadily grown from 96 in 1978 to 126 in 1983 and 183 in 1991, an annual increase of nearly seven universities.

28 Many of the universities in developing countries have recently focused on newer departments and disciplines, reflecting the needs of disciplines based on science and technology. Developed countries, with earlier experience of higher education for science and technology, have established departments in many of the highly specialised scientific and technical fields that developing countries are just venturing into. The problem of staffing the newer medical, engineering and technological departments has strained the limited resources of high level manpower in these fields.

29 Data in Table 7 further illustrate that in many of the less developed countries only a small proportion of their higher education students graduate in the Natural Science and Engineering fields. Natural Science and Engineering graduates constitute a higher proportion of graduates in industrialised countries and in advanced developing countries in south-east Asia who during the last decade have consciously turned their attention to development through industrialisation. During 1990/91, among high-income countries Sweden produced more than 35 per cent of science and engineering graduates while Britain and France had an output of about 28 per cent in science and engineering. The newly industrialising countries also focused largely on producing science and engineering students; Malaysia, Philippines and China graduate nearly 40 per cent of their students in these fields. In Singapore nearly 57 per cent of university students graduate in these disciplines.

Postgraduate studies

30 The size of postgraduate enrolments in developing countries has not ensured a sufficient recruitment base for the needs of their own institutions. A generally high level of postgraduate enrolment maintained through the 1980s in industrialised countries has ensured their institutions' capacity to recruit quality staff. Developing countries throughout this period have faced such massive increase of undergraduate enrolments that postgraduate enrolments have not kept pace. In 1988/89 among high-income countries Britain had 18.1 per cent, Australia 18.6 per cent, Canada 10.2 per cent and Sweden 18.1 per cent of students enrolled in postgraduate degrees, while among lower-income countries the proportion was at the best around 10 per cent, but often less than 5 per cent of total enrolments (see Table 4).

Women in higher education

31 Women's contribution to and participation in higher education has improved over the last few decades, but they are still considerably under-represented in higher education and research institutions. Women are typically located in the lower ranks of the institutional hierarchy and are clustered in the social sciences. For universities to develop fully and utilise the potential of all the human resources in the society, the position of women remains critical and one that needs to be appreciably improved (see Box 3).

32 The under-representation of women at all levels of management signals not only negative gender bias but also inequitable access to opportunities for career and professional advancement as well as under utilisation of the available pool of talent within a country. Such a situation calls for a close look at practices of recruitment, training and promotion in order to identify strategies which will effect a more equitable balance.

33 The value of having women at senior professional levels of management who provide role models for those at junior levels cannot be overestimated. Experience demonstrates that women sensitive to the pertinent gender issues are required at senior levels to lobby for policy change.

New challenges and demands

34 The general quantitative expansion of higher education during the post-war decades in developed and developing countries wrought dramatic changes in several traditional characteristics of universities.

35 The idea of a university as a centre of excellence serving the intellectual elite of a nation gave way to more egalitarian conceptions which altered admission policies. By broadening the base of student admission, wider ability and achievement ranges resulted; minority group participation increased; more mature and part-time students, experienced in the world of work, enrolled; and demands for new course content and organisation followed as a natural outcome. These changes led to the emergence of a student populace whose spectrum of needs was extremely varied both in content and learning styles.

Box 3 Women in higher education and research institutions

Women are grossly under-represented in higher education and research institutions. There are especially few women in key high-level academic research and administrative positions or in the fields of science and technology. A UNESCO survey (1987) showed that of university teachers/researchers women comprised 14.5 per cent in Ghana, 17.2 per cent in Malawi, 20.5 per cent in Jamaica, 7.7 per cent in Bangladesh and 18.5 per cent in India. In most countries women contribute an even smaller proportion of grade 1 jobs representing the professors, senior lecturers, senior researchers, rectors, deans, directors of institutes or heads of department. Women representation in top level posts in administration, management and planning is truly critical. In Malawi, out of 43 deans and heads of departments only three were women; in Mauritius of 16 posts only two were held by women; and in New Zealand of the top 17 positions only one was occupied by a woman. Even in developed Commonwealth countries like Canada women formed only 4.6 per cent of teachers/researchers in the natural sciences but constituted 25 per cent and 20.7 per cent of the teachers/researchers in the educational and social sciences respectively. The position is similar in the developing countries: in Malawi there are only 6.2 per cent women teachers/researchers in the natural sciences compared with 20 per cent women in the natural sciences but 13.4 per cent in the social sciences.

In most countries the student population has a much higher proportion of women than that reflected in the academic positions suggesting that there is a much larger available pool of women for recruitment. For instance, Ghana had 20.0 per cent women students in institutions of learning but only 5.6 per cent women teachers/researchers.

Source: Survey on the Representation of Women in Higher Education, Research, Educational Planning, Administration and Management, UNESCO, 1987

Women are presently still not being nominated and awarded fellowships to advance their academic careers to the same extent as men. From 1981-82 to 1984-85 women took up between 24 per cent and 25 per cent of CSFP awards.

Source: GEORGE TILLMAN, *Commonwealth Student Flows in an International Perspective: Update and Model for Future Monitoring,* Commonwealth Secretariat, 1988

They were also noticeably more articulate and critical than previous generations, subjecting all aspects of university life to scrutiny.

36 In tandem with these changes academic staff had to find ways of coping with the knowledge explosion; dealing with a critical and articulate student body as well as a public taking stock of changing values and expectations; handling the impact of educational technology on teaching methods; and seeking ways in which student learning could be facilitated.

37 Universities are envisaged as playing a crucial or pivotal role in national development. Suitably oriented indigenous personnel may be expected to be concerned with the acquisition of knowledge that helps expedite such development. Contributions to national development are dependent upon the quality of the staff that are able not only to teach but also to participate in identifying and articulating problems the solutions to which enable the university to develop as a seat of leadership and scholarship. More than obtaining the right numbers, interest is also focused upon developing staff with the appropriate orientation to national and regional interests.

38 Attention has been turned particularly to the need to respond to the demands that have become evident and gained momentum in the last three decades from:

a) the academic staff themselves, who having been appointed on the strength of their expertise in knowledge domains are increasingly aware that they have little knowledge of pedagogical precepts and are seeking to advance their understanding of contemporary educational theory and practice

b) the students, who have made the transition from a relatively formalised and structured form of learning heavily dependent upon teachers' guidance to a more self-motivated and independent learning system

c) society, which has invested large amounts of resources in higher education and in these leaner times wishes to receive value for its investment and calls upon universities to be more accountable and efficient.

39 The total higher education scenario comprising unprecedented growth, the development of new areas of knowledge requiring new course structures and programmes, the demand from employers for flexible, well trained and competent graduates, places pressures on facilities, resources and organisational structures. All these make new demands on staff, whether administrative, technical, professional or support, bringing into focus more sharply than ever before the urgent need to upgrade the competence of all staff.

Part 2: Perspectives on Staff Development

Staff development dimensions

40 Developing countries confront staff development challenges in six principal areas:

Academic development
Past efforts of institutions have concentrated on increasing the supply of local personnel, upgrading qualifications, and opening up new areas of knowledge, but a shortfall persists. Academic development deficits are many: small pools of eligible graduates across the disciplines; shortages in new knowledge areas or in specific disciplines related to science, medicine and technology; insufficient postgraduate experience and training; and inappropriate training and a 'brain drain' in cases of graduates who elect to remain in the institutions of more developed countries.

Professional and career development
Academic staff need to be engaged in activities that ensure career-long professional development, providing opportunities for remaining on the cutting edge of developments in their fields of specialisation. Systematic planning is required to deal with issues regarding updating of knowledge (through sabbaticals, attachments, study visits, etc.); membership of professional bodies and participation in international expert meetings; measures that stimulate publications originating in developing country institutions; and opportunities to keep abreast with changes in information technology.

Instructional development
The expansion of higher education and increased access for a wider range of ability groups signal the need to improve pedagogical skills of staff members so that the quality of the teaching-learning process is maintained and raised. This situation calls for staff development activities related to improving teaching methods, curriculum evaluation and renewal, assessment techniques and preparation of indigenous instructional materials.

Management skills
Higher education teachers take on increasingly complex tasks as institutions expand, administrative structures change and professional responsibilities diversify – all requiring adeptness in management functions. The running of faculties and departments to include work on student services, publications, links with governments, institutions (local and overseas) and various other organisations, and the design and conduct of research projects, emphasises the crucial need for enhancing management skills.

Coping with changing technology

The face of higher education is changing rapidly through the introduction of new technology: the establishment of academic networks that function with electronic mailing; the transfer of academic documents and research materials through new technologies such as on-line computers and CD-ROM; fax machines and ever improving communication technology. All focus the need of academic staff for skills and technical knowledge that will enable them to participate in the global generation and sharing of knowledge. Universities and staff have to respond to demands made on them by these new technologies and become competent to benefit from these developments.

Organisational environment and support

Attempts to meet staff development needs must involve the development of a supportive organisational environment within which professional activities can take root and flourish. Confronted as they are with the need for academic development, innovative methods of teaching, revamping courses and programmes, alternative assessment procedures and search for effective methods to improve the performance of students, institutions need to establish appropriate support systems for academic staff. Through these structures help can be made readily available and access possible to a series of support services that make the task of the instructor/teacher less burdensome and bewildering. These include more efficient channels for information collection, dissemination and retrieval; and a web of internal, local, national, regional and international links and networks directed to specific staff development activities.

Key issues in developing countries

41 The two groups of problems related to staff development which dominate institutions of higher education in developing countries are:

- the shortages of adequately trained academic personnel, especially in the key areas of science and technology
- the poor quality of the teaching-learning process experienced by students.

42 In the case of the former, institutions of higher education are concerned with the availability of a reservoir of well qualified personnel for entry into academic positions. The concern here is with the capacity of the higher education system to produce suitable entrants into teaching and research positions in universities. Traditional staff recruitment practices in universities are usually based on scholastic performance and research abilities on the assumption that these qualities transmute themselves into effective teaching styles. In the case of the latter, institutions are concerned that teaching itself is a professional activity with its own complex of knowledge, attitudes, skills, motivations and values that does not necessarily reside in the professional scholar of Chemistry, Mathematics or History. Staff development strategies therefore turn their attention to in-service activities designed to upgrade qualifications, update knowledge and improve research and teaching skills.

43 A key question for developing countries is to determine where the focus of staff development activities should be placed. Should staff development activities concentrate on the supply and training of a cadre of well qualified persons to enter university teaching; or should it attempt to improve the instructional and professional capacities of academic staff who are already in the system and who need updating and upgrading of their knowledge bases? Or should programmes also be preoccupied with equipping university teachers with essential skills in teaching methods and techniques that would improve student learning and performance in their fields?

44 In developed countries the process of selection based on competitive qualifications criteria make it almost unnecessary for the universities to initiate further training schemes to upgrade the qualifications of their staff. Staff development schemes can assume that staff needs are primarily for opportunities to keep abreast in their field and to embark on research that would enrich their teaching. In contrast, for developing countries which face serious staff shortages and problems of localisation, the primary concern is to ensure a good supply of academics flowing into higher education.

45 It is therefore not surprising that in many developing countries staff development simply refers to schemes and mechanisms to find suitably qualified personnel to take up university positions. The preoccupation is often almost completely with ensuring a steady flow of potential recruits into university teaching. In addition, staff development activities in developing countries are overwhelmingly concerned with aspects of professional and career development.

46 Nevertheless, developing countries are aware that to ensure proper delivery of higher education, staff development must move into the sphere of enhancing learning and teaching processes. It is now evident that alongside recruitment schemes, attention is switching to schemes that provide opportunities for other aspects of staff development. Developing countries and their institutions of higher education are now having to strike a balance between the two broad areas of staff development.

47 Developing countries are now convinced that in part the solution to their higher education problems lies in comprehensive staff development. The improved quality of teaching and research leading to the production of better graduates is crucial to their development efforts. The Association of African Universities recognises that a significant catalyst in the process of change within universities has been staff development which has moved beyond improving teaching and learning to an integrated all-embracing effort to improve the individual, the institution and the academic environment: as universities undertake in-depth revision of objectives, missions, forms of governance and organisational structures, staff development is viewed as pivotal to the process of renewal.

Part 3: Policy Directions in Staff Development

Policy focus

48 This section looks at efforts to establish staff development policy relating to improvement in the quality of instruction in higher education institutions.

49 Policy emphases differ according to the needs of the country and institution: in the case of many developing country universities where the overriding preoccupation is to recruit sufficient indigenous staff with appropriate training in the desired disciplines, policy documents stress, firstly, the importance of identifying suitable candidates from among the talent pool within countries/institutions; secondly, issues relating to the provision of academic training for newly recruited staff and existing staff in order to serve the university more effectively and prepare them to apply for advancement and promotion (see Box 4).

50 In those developing countries where a large pool of qualified staff exists policy concerns often tend to reflect those of developed countries with focuses

Box 4 Staff Development Programme: University of Papua New Guinea

Aims

i) Recognising the importance of having PNG citizens occupying positions at all levels throughout the University, the Staff Development Programme (SDP) aims to provide a structure through which potential national staff may be identified and offered opportunities for appropriate education, training and experience prior to application for an appointment.

ii) The Staff Development Programme also aims to provide existing national staff with similar opportunities which will develop their ability to serve the University more effectively and prepare them to apply for advancement and promotion.

These aims will be pursued through the work of the Staff Development Committee (SDC) working in collaboration with Departments and individual staff of the University.

Source: University of Papua New Guinea, *Staff Development Policy/Procedures*

on upgrading academic knowledge, research skills, and enhancing management and administration practices. The major policy aim of the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration in India is to institutionalise the concept of academic staff development. It is in the execution of policy that many countries with poorly-resourced higher education sectors fail to live up to plans.

51 The policy statements of developed country institutions consistently focus on programmes that will enhance instructional and research skills, with fairly detailed recommendations regarding implementation strategy and management structure. Considerable attention is also given to conducting research that will build up a knowledge base and expertise in specialised areas related to the work of staff development centres (see Box 5).

52 In some countries academic staff development and related training policies are seen within a broader framework of human resource development where staff access to training opportunities are perceived as both entitlement and requirement. The Tertiary Education Institute of the University of Queensland includes in its rationale for staff development state legislation which refers to industrial relations, training and workplace environment legislation (see Box 6). The Institute also emphasises the view of the university as an organisation where staff development is integral to organisational development and the consequences of such a view. A variant of this may be seen in situations where a university models its training and development policies upon organisations in industry, borrowing their concepts and terminology. In many cases this view extends itself to include training and support programmes for general and support staff as is the practice at the University of Auckland. The University of British Columbia's Philosophy Statement and Policy in Box 7 also reflect this position.

Box 5 The Centre for Higher Education Research and Development, Manitoba

The Centre was created in 1987 to meet the need for focused and sustained professional development in post-secondary education. Today the Centre serves as an organisational vehicle to translate knowledge into practice in effective management of educational institutions and in teaching and learning.

The Centre is committed to the goal of enhancing the professional development and practical competencies of individuals through regional, national and international courses, seminars, and symposia.

... training and development activities stimulate research and scholarship within the Centre's three areas of concentration: Management, Teaching and Learning, and Policy Studies.

Source: Centre for Higher Education Research and Development, The University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada

Box 6 The Tertiary Education Institute, Queensland

The University's Mission and Goals statement and Commonwealth and State legislation including industrial relations, training, and workplace environment legislation place increased emphasis on staff development. There are also implications for staff development arising from recent Industrial Agreements emanating from Wage Case decisions. The Structural Efficiency (award restructuring) initiatives reinforce these and encourage the provision of enhanced career opportunities for all staff. We anticipate too that vocational education and training programmes and curricula based on national core competency standards, will be developed jointly by industrial parties under award restructuring negotiations and endorsed by the National Training Board. By sharing information and expertise from Personnel Services and the Tertiary Education Institute, the staff development team will continue to assist the University to respond appropriately to these changes.

Source: Staff Development Programme 1992: The Tertiary Education Institute, University of Queensland, p.3

Staff development is part of organisational development. It focuses on ways of achieving future goals and is intimately associated with strategic planning. Staff development is concerned with bringing about those changes in the performance of individuals and in the profile of the members of an organisation which are involved in the realisation of the organisation's goals.

Three significant consequences flow from such a definition:

i) Staff development is the responsibility of those in management positions;
ii) Support for staff development must come from more than one agency;
iii) Those agencies will focus much of their effort on working with organisational groups (rather than individuals) and with senior management.

*Source: **Annual Report 1990-91***, The Tertiary Education Institute, The University of Queensland

Policy development

53 Statements or declarations on policy often originate at a national or institutional level: they may be the result of management decisions or they may reflect pressures brought about by academic staff themselves as they respond to developments in higher education nationally and internationally. Impetus has in some cases originated from faculty: the University of British Columbia is a case in point where the Faculty Development Program grew out of an initiative of the Faculty Association, and gaining support at higher levels, is currently funded and managed by the President's Office. Initiative from another source is

Box 7 University of British Columbia: Philosophy and Policy Statements

Philosophy statement
To reach its goal of excellence in teaching and research and to help fulfil its pledge to be a model employer, the University of British Columbia is committed to fostering the development of all its employees. In the broadest sense, the University recognises that training and development promotes both personal and organisational health.

Policy
The University of British Columbia has pledged itself to creating an environment equivalent to that of companies selected as among the best one hundred companies to work for. In order to fulfil this pledge, the University will allocate the resources necessary for training and career development opportunities for all employees.

Source: University of British Columbia

seen in Queen's University, Ontario, where its Centre for Instructional Development was initiated partly by the Students' Association or Alma Mater Society. Students monitor the Centre's performances and voted to impose fees on themselves to contribute about one third of costs. An approach which merits attention can be discerned in the external pressures brought about by national or state-level requirements, particularly in requirements to be met in relation to funding and resource decisions. In an age of financial austerity, many systems speak strongly about quality and productivity but have difficulty in linking these with performance indicators. Policies in the United Kingdom and Europe dealing with quality assurance and academic or quality audit (see Boxes 8, 9 and 10) attempt to establish such a link with a recent shift towards quality assurance exercises as providing a more reliable and practical mechanism for implementation.

54 Perhaps the single most significant move in staff development over the last decade or so in developed and developing countries is the effort to institutionalise practices perceived as contributing to improving instruction and professional growth. Policies have evolved at various levels of authority and these have been responsible for initiating mechanisms which provide a framework for the implementation of staff development activities. While the interest in teaching-learning activities is far from being on the same footing as research, increased resources and growth of faculty participation in instructional improvement conferences and seminars are two indicators demonstrating perhaps an increased value placed on it.

55 Policy statements, directives and frameworks can be seen to support each other vertically at many levels, and horizontally across administrative and academic structures. Experience has shown that at the institutional level, policies emanating from the Vice-Chancellor's Office work best when buttressed by supporting policies from faculties and departments on the one hand, and when

Box 8 Quality assurance in Europe

'Quality' has become one of the key words in higher education issues in the last five years. To some extent, quality has replaced the term 'excellence' and has become a leitmotiv in the dialogue between the institutions on the one hand and government on the other. There are several reasons for this: the general over-optimistic growth of higher education in the sixties; the general wave of cuts in Europe in the eighties; concern over the quality of delivery, as systems of higher education have expanded to take in new kinds of entrant; and a demand for accountability ('ensuring value for money'). From being the transfer of knowledge of high culture to a select number of students, higher education institutions have transformed themselves all over Europe into a new type of enterprise, offering more market oriented curricula and having to ensure that public funds are spent properly. What the concept of quality means precisely, though, varies from one country to the next ... . Quality assurance implies that 'quality' should be demonstrated by higher education institutions. Its presence guarantees that the system is working in a satisfactory way from an economic/political viewpoint and from the user's viewpoint, whether they be employers or direct consumers such as students.

In some countries, the maintenance of quality is automatically seen as being directly the state's responsibility: the result has been the compilation of prescriptive tables which determine how many hours of this or that course one has to follow to graduate in a specific field. The key means of introducing more 'quality assurance' in higher education has, though, been through the introduction of new evaluation systems, by which institutions are charged with the responsibility of maintaining quality themselves, and new national agencies are being introduced to assess the success with which institutions have fulfilled their responsibilities.

Source: MARTIN NEAVE, *'Models of Quality Assurance in Europe'*, CNAA Discussion Paper 6, p. 2, February 1991

given authority and weight at the national and regional levels on the other. Policies are most often expressed in terms of formal policy documents which have the power to locate staff development in the centre of university development, as the policy recommendations of the national Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals in Britain point out, so that staff development can cease to be just another 'bolt on' marginal activity but rather an integral part of an institution's strategic planning.

56 Drawing on the British experience, Box 11 on page 24 recommends strategies to be developed at the national level in Britain and their planned impact on staff development policy and implementation at the institutional and departmental levels. They are characterised by senior-level tasks in terms of reporting responsibility, time allocation, locating staff development within strategic planning exercises at institutional and departmental levels, and initiating structural changes as evinced by the setting up of staff development co-ordinating units and a co-ordinating officer. That the Code of Practice

Box 9 Quality assurance in the Netherlands

Universities still rely for more than 80 per cent of their budgets on government funds, and are therefore very dependent upon the public purse. Funding is conditional upon universities' adherence to national statutory regulations and acceptance of both the planning and funding systems. The government is currently seeking to reduce the number of regulations and to increase the autonomy of universities.

The Minister for Education and Science has assumed responsibility for the quality and the development of both university and higher vocational education (including the closure of study programmes). The quality control systems of universities have, though, assumed an increasingly central place in government policy in the field of undergraduate studies (e.g. maximum duration of study, course distribution, etc., as well as course assessment procedures).

A recent policy paper by the Ministry of Education and Science, adopted by Parliament in 1986, was entitled 'Autonomy and quality in higher education'. The document underlines the present broad consensus that institutions of higher education should themselves assess their own performance and be involved in improving it. More freedom is to be granted to universities, on condition that a system of internal and external quality control is set up. This system of quality control is being organised by the universities themselves by setting up visiting committees of the joint universities board, VSNU (Vereniging van Samenwerkende Nederlands Universiteiten).

The VSNU defines the mission of the visiting committees of the joint universities board being set up (with a committee for each broad subject area) as follows: 'the task of the visiting committees is to evaluate the quality of education in a particular discipline, by using the information provided by the universities, by actually visiting the faculties concerned, and finally by laying down their comments in an official document'. It is hoped that the ensuing expert comments from the committees will encourage faculties to take their own measures to improve the quality of education in their discipline. If the faculty and the university board prove to be negligent in their duties to carry out the proposed measures and are unable to justify their inaction, ultimately the Minister may be obliged to take action.

Following visits to the universities a joint report between the visiting committee and the faculty in the subject under review is presented to the Inspectorate of higher education and to the Minister of Education and Science. There is some scepticism about the uses to which the results of these evaluations may be put. For some commentators, there is a risk that the reports may be used to justify resource constraints in Dutch higher education.

Performance indicators

Under the influence of the new legislative framework, new systems of internal quality control are being introduced in Dutch universities. The best known one is AMOS – analysis model pertaining to the quality of education within faculties. This is built around the production of internal data on the performance indicators adopted by the HOAK Committee within the VSNU. These include: quality of student enrolment; quality of student flow (as revealed in the non-completion rate); quality of graduates; quality of available staff members; quality of educational organisation; quality of educational improvements. Systems like AMOS will require considerable effort to be fully operational since much of the basic data are completely absent.

Source: MARTIN NEAVE, *Models of Quality Assurance*, CNAA Discussion Paper 6, p.2

Box 10 Academic Audit Unit

The Academic Audit Unit began a series of pilot visits in early 1990, devising a methodology whereby teams of [3] auditors visit institutions (officially by invitation, although no university declined to issue an invitation). Full audits began in the latter part of 1991. Institutions prepare extensive 'briefing documentation' and selective audits are carried out to see whether the mechanisms described are working effectively. The definition of quality used by the Academic Audit Unit is that of 'fitness for purpose', i.e. a university is measured against its own claims, and auditors use a rough checklist:

Universities' mechanisms for quality assurance in provision and design of courses and degree programmes:

- having centrally planned monitoring of courses and teaching
- scrutinising new courses or degree programmes (or revisions)
- monitoring course design in relation to student intake
- monitoring validation of courses in associated institutions.

Universities' mechanisms for quality assurance in teaching and communication methods:

- monitoring existing courses and degree programmes including data collection (student numbers, drop-out rates, classified degree results, etc.)
- monitoring postgraduate training and research, including appeals procedures at postgraduate research degree level
- seeking external examiner's views
- monitoring and informing students of their progress and exam performance, including appeals procedures
- promoting innovative practice in universities such as use of interactive video and expert systems.

Universities' mechanisms for quality assurance taking account of:

- external examiners' reports
- students' views on courses
- views of external bodies (professional accrediting bodies, employers).

The reports produced after an audit do not rank institutions, but it is expected that the institutions themselves will make them publicly available. The process itself has been an interesting one, and has certainly generated some change within institutions. Some institutions have controlled the process from a central Academic Audit office with staff specifically employed to do so (e.g. the University of Glasgow). Others... have devolved the process down to faculty and departmental level, issuing central guidelines (e.g. on Curriculum Approval, Course Monitoring and Programme Review) and asking faculties to adopt them as they see fit...

Source: ALISON GIRDWOOD and KENNETH KING, *Quality Assurance Systems in Teaching in Higher Education: Recent Developments in the U.K.*, 1992

Box 11 Recommendations on strategy

(i) There should be a strategic plan for staff development within the institution and those responsible for framing it should be involved appropriately in the development of the university's institutional plan. The institution's strategic plan should be integrated into the corporate plan, rather than 'bolted on'.

(ii) It should be recognised that staff development activities are most effectively promoted by:

- commitment to staff development from the university's most senior officers
- a written policy of training and staff development which is communicated to all staff
- having at least one Staff Development Co-ordinator (preferably full-time) who has sufficient time to execute the function, and sufficient seniority to make an effective contribution.

(iii) Staff development should be acknowledged as a line management responsibility. Heads of Departments and sections should be encouraged to spend time with their staff in planning, discussing and integrating their staff development activities. Staff should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and the idea of formal 'learning contracts' should be considered.

(iv) It is important that finance and time be planned and allocated for development activities. Staff development should be seen less as an ad-hoc activity but one which is properly costed, where priorities can be established and training plans devised. Earlier notification of training events will help local managers devise development plans for their staff and may help to encourage a culture where time and money for training is built into work schedules.

(v) An integrated approach to staff development should be adopted where all staff groups are taken into account when staff development plans and programmes of in-house courses are being devised. The approach of publishing an integrated programme, which is not exclusively available to one staff category, is commended.

(vi) Such programmes and training plans should derive from carefully constructed techniques of identifying and analysing development needs.

(vii) Clear and explicit links should be organised and implemented between university's staff appraisal scheme and its staff training and development unit.

Source: PETER GUILDFORD, ***Staff Development Provision in Universities of the United Kingdom,*** Universities' Staff Development and Training Unit, Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom, 1990

developed by the CVCP's Committee for University Staff Development and Training in 1987 has had some impact is a finding of the 1989 investigation in university practices. Financial constraints, it is understood, have impeded the rate of implementation.

57 At the institutional level, policies that seem to work are those that are integrally linked to mechanisms embedded in the administrative and professional life of universities, widely communicated to staff, and backed up by policy and practical support at high levels. Many Canadian universities have been taking steps to improve instruction and reward staff members for good teaching. An illustration comes from McGill University in Canada which requires its Cyclical Review Committees to pay particular attention to the quality of teaching programmes, having developed criteria for such evaluation. Planning documents and annual reports are expected to include teaching activities and achievements with resources being made available for teaching innovation, curriculum development and revision, course design, related research and participation in conferences on teaching and learning.

58 A well-designed policy initiative reflects a regional level approach by fifteen universities in Eastern and Southern Africa which set up the University Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa Network (USDESA). The history of USDESA's formation pointed to support received from aid agencies (BC, DSE, UNECA), growing out of various developmental activities promoted by agencies in the university sector, specifically in the area of staff development. A mission/policy statement (see Box 12) prepared by the staff development facilitators of the universities was accepted by their Vice-Chancellors and was followed by the formation of the Network. During its initial developmental phase, it was planned that the support and facilities of the University of Zimbabwe Teaching and Learning Centre would assist the group, working in collaboration with the Association of African Universities.

59 From the experience of universities surveyed, the following features may be singled out:

a) Staff development policies reflect the developmental stage of the institution and as a consequence the focus may move from a preoccupation with staff members' obtaining higher academic qualifications to providing training and services to enhance instructional and research skills.
b) Policies originate from more than one source and may reflect a top-down direction starting with top management or a bottom-up direction where there is demand from staff members themselves. One case of student initiative was recorded.
c) Support from top management proved to be essential if policy was to be implemented and sustained.

Box 12 University Staff Development – A Challenge for the 1990s and Beyond: Harare Recommendations on Staff Development in Eastern and Southern African Universities

The Vice-Chancellors of universities in Eastern and Southern Africa met in Mbabane 1985 and Harare in 1987 to review the problems facing higher education in the region. At their meetings, the Vice-Chancellors adopted the Mbabane Programme of Action and the Harare Declaration which committed their universities to staff development. With financial support from the German Foundation for International Development (DSE), and professional and technical assistance from the University of Zimbabwe, the British Council, and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, participants from universities in the region took part in a series of workshops 'Towards Academic and Professional Excellence in Higher Education'. The objectives of the workshops held over 3 years at Harare in 1989, Kassel and Berlin in 1990. and finally at Kariba and Harare in 1991 were to:

- develop and strengthen the concept of professional staff development in higher education in Africa
- enhance the competencies of staff development facilitators
- establish a staff development network in the region.

Convinced that we, the participants in the series of workshops, and our universities have an obligation to contribute to staff development, academic and professional excellence; and aware that universities in the region:

- face problems of increased student enrolment, overstretched facilities and continuously decreasing resources
- play a key role in national development
- need to promote mutual co-operation
- are committed to effective teaching and learning; research; and maintaining high academic standards;

we have adopted the Harare Recommendations on Staff Development for. Eastern and Southern African Universities addressed to our Vice-Chancellors.

We recommend:

(i) The establishment of staff development centres (SDCs) where none exist, and the appointment of co-ordinators for professional staff development. These SDCs will facilitate and co-ordinate activities aimed at professional staff development and enhance the competency of university academic staff in specific areas of teaching and learning; research and publication; university management and administration; guidance and counselling; and community service.

(ii) The establishment of a network within each university, between universities in each country and amongst universities in the region. Such a network will facilitate the sharing and efficient use of limited physical, material and human resources in participating universities, countries and the whole region as a drive towards self-sufficiency.

(iii) The encouragement and promotion of local production of teaching materials such as textbooks, manuals for practical work, journals and audio-visual aids.

(iv) A continuous review of curricula according to the needs of the learner, university, and the nation.

(v) The promotion of management training programmes for university administrative and academic staff.

(vi) The acceptance and recognition that research contributes to effective teaching and learning, and, consequently, that adequate funds be allocated to research; that staff be enabled to engage in research and enquiry; and that adequate facilities and resources be provided for the publication and dissemination of research findings.

(vii) The recognition and creation of an enabling academic environment which takes into account academic freedom, staff appraisal, promotion, retention and welfare.

(viii) The enhancement of guidance and counselling which has become more necessary in view of the increasing academic and social problems facing students and academic staff.

Source: University Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa Network, University of Zimbabwe

Part 4: Implementation: Structure and Organisation of Staff Development Programmes

60 The structure and organisation of staff development activities may be reviewed in terms of institutional, national, regional and international/global arrangements. Provision at each level reflects diverse approaches, not only responding to the requirements of the institution and the staff but also indicating the extent to which institutions are able or willing to commit resources to such activities.

Institutional arrangements

61 a) In some developed countries an Office of Academic Affairs or a Staff Development Office located in the Administration, working in collaboration with faculties, research units, etc. may have responsibility for co-ordinating activities, with minimal staff capacity. The range of staff development activities is overseen by a formal committee which meets regularly, fulfilling planning, budgeting and other steering functions as in the case of the University of Adelaide.

Staff development structures may be constituted in administrative units such as the Higher Education Research Office in the University of Auckland or they may be **located within the central administration** as part of the registry or personnel services, with work led by a staff development officer. The advantage of close association with Personnel Services, as in the case in the University of Queensland, is the healthy tendency to take a human resource development perspective of staff development focusing on skills development and upgrading. The risk of marginalisation may exist when the staff development officer does not hold a sufficiently high-level designation or appointment or when the appointment is on a part-time basis. The question of marginalisation may not arise in those cases where there is consistent high-level support from the Vice-Chancellor or a high-level committee that can steer policy and harness required resources.

This has been attempted by the Staff Development Committee at the University of Dundee which is convened by the Vice-Principal, and which has representation from the highest decision-making levels within the institution, namely the Senate and Court. It is serviced by the Personnel Officer and a part-time staff development officer on secondment from the academic staff who deals with academic and research-related matters, and who advises two sub-committees dealing with technical and secretarial staff.

b) In an increasing number of universities in Australia and North America, **independent units or centres dedicated to staff development functions** which serve the university as a whole have been set up. These range from units which are served by perhaps two full-time professional staff and one or more part-time staff (e.g. University of McGill Centre for University Teaching and Learning) to those who might have eleven full-time professional staff (e.g. University of Adelaide's Advisory Centre for University Education). Often the complement of professional staff is augmented by associates who may be providing part-time or full-time service on a temporary or semi-permanent basis. In McGill, for instance, the two full-time staff members are supported by three full-time administrative staff, part-time professional staff called research associates, and visiting professors from either McGill itself or from other Canadian and American universities. Keeping full-time staff numbers down is seen as a sensible response to financial constraints.

c) A significant variant of b) is the case of a unit that serves the entire institution and is **located in one department** as seen in the Unit for Staff Development and Research into Higher Education at the Free University of Berlin. Founded in 1976, it is located in the Department of Education with four professional staff members including a Head of Unit supported by two secretaries. In its initial stages it was funded by the Federal Ministry for Education and is now an integral part of the university.

The experience of other institutions has been rather different: while a department of education with its professional thrust in pedagogical matters seems a logical starting point, often this may become a source of contention where to have one department or faculty perceived as superior in teaching-learning expertise renders the situation invidious. But such an approach would appear to have worked for the Free University.

d) **A unit may serve several institutions and colleges** that are part of the same university as in the case of the University of London where its Teaching Methods Unit had this function across the federal structure of the university. This function is currently undertaken by the Centre for Higher Education Studies which is a part of the university's Institute of Education. The Centre operates on a cost-recovery basis from the university's constituent institutions. Courses are also open to academics nationally but the largest take up is from the members of the university.

e) University staff development structures may **link up with one or more specialist bodies external to the institutions:** Queensland, for instance, links up with the Occupational Health and Safety Unit, the Office of Equal Opportunity and the Counselling Services in mounting of training programmes.

62 The practice of formal committee control appears to be giving way in many developed country situations (especially in Western Europe) to a more **flexible working mode** where a staff development co-ordinator is in a position to take executive action after **consultation with less formally-structured advisory groups**. According to the recommendations of the CVCP this is the 'preferred model' for UK. In the Committee's opinion it helps to ensure the institution of appropriate funding mechanisms; the availability of adequate

Box 13 Recommendations on organisation

(i) The trend away from the strictures of formal committee control for staff development activities is to be commended. A preferred model is where a staff development co-ordinator is able to work more flexibly and to take executive action after consultation with less formal advisory groups.

(ii) Universities should consider setting up a central training/development budget managed by the staff development co-ordinator, so that staff development activities may be planned and monitored. If central funding is not appropriate, institutions should devise some mechanism for costing and planning the overall staff development activity.

(iii) The provision of separate training accommodation, training rooms, equipment and offices does a great deal to provide a visible presence and focus for staff development activities.

(iv) Where there are separate agents, within a university, providing staff development activities, e.g. Continuing Education, PICKUP or Enterprise in Higher Education initiatives, there is a need to ensure that these are integrated with the university's other staff development activities. At the very least, staff development providers within the same institution should speak to each other to ensure that there is no duplication of effort.

(v) Inter-institutional and transbinary co-operation in staff development matters can be mutually beneficial and should be encouraged for all staff groups.

(vi) Regional groups provide a useful meeting point for those involved in staff development activities and although there are many of them, there is no obvious case for rationalisation. In order to share ideas and avoid duplication of effort it is important that mechanisms be established to ensure that these groups keep in touch with each other and are aware of each others activities. This may be achieved by:

- setting up regional umbrella groups to co-ordinate activities on models already established and working in Scotland and the Midlands
- members of the Universities' Staff Development and Training Unit attending meetings of individual regional committees or their umbrella groups
- producing a register of regional groupings, listing the name and addresses of conveners and members.

(vii) Although there are regional groups operating for clerical/secretarial, technical and manual/ancillary staffs in some parts of the country, they are not as extensively organised as those for academic and administrative staff. Active consideration needs to be given to the possible benefits of more extensive regional provision for these staff groups.

Source: PETER GUILDFORD, *Staff Development Provision in Universities of the United Kingdom*, Universities' Staff Development and Training Unit, Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom, 1990

facilities and equipment; a dialogue between diverse providers, internal and external to the institution including regional groupings; and that provision is extended to non-academic staff. (See Box 13 for a set of recommendations directed to the organisation of staff development provision in one country.) The experiences of those involved stress that such working modes do not obviate the need for an adequately-staffed and resourced staff development unit.

National arrangements

63 The different types of national arrangements fall under three headings.

National committees
These can provide significant collective mechanisms for the higher education sector.

a) Countries like Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom have Committees of Vice-Chancellors and Principals whose members play strategic roles in formulating the critical groundwork in policy creation and in winning high-level political support.

b) In some countries the collective structure is represented by a non-governmental body in which institutions have membership representation. The Association of Universities and Colleges in Canada and in India the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration as well as the Association of Indian Universities provide examples. Such structures are often referred to as apex organisations in the Indian sub-continent reflecting their perceived role as providing professional leadership.

c) In many Commonwealth countries the University Grants Commission, the major governmental arm for financing higher education, provides significant leadership in this respect, as in the cases of India and Pakistan. Such collective structures become especially important as agencies which are expected not only to handle competently the government-higher education sector interface but also to bring about and manage change.

A complex of organisations and institutions responding to central mandates
This characterises the staff development arrangements in India. Several levels of institution are involved in serving staff development needs of this large system of 172 universities, 7,000 colleges, with a faculty strength of about 250,000.

a) Located in New Delhi is the Association of Indian Universities which was established in 1925 with the aim of providing a forum for information exchange and also to facilitate communication, consultation and co-ordination among universities.

b) The University Grants Commission has in the last decade established 48 Academic Staff Colleges (with 43 functioning at the time of writing, three of which are dedicated to Distance Education) whose task it is to conduct orientation and refresher training programmes on a regular basis, designed according to standard UGC guidelines.

c) Working in collaboration with UGC and other bodies is the organisation set up by the Central Government – the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). Also located in New Delhi, NIEPA's Higher Education Unit has a small professional staff who work closely with various bodies and institutions throughout the country.

d) The Indira Gandhi National Open University has staff development responsibility for any university using distance education.

e) Providing training in the same areas are a number of University Departments and more than 160 training institutions in India classified as Central/National Training Institutions.

Challenges facing large and complex tertiary education systems such as India's are enormous. Box 14 describes one staff development centre's attempts to deal with the challenges.

Box 14 Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education, University of Delhi

The Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education (CPDHE) was set up in 1988 and is one of the designated Academic Staff Colleges of the University Grants Commission (UGC). Need for professional renewal programmes had emerged earlier, however: in 1979 the Mathur Committee included its recommendations on staff development when dealing with the charter of demands of the Delhi University Teachers' Association .

Through careful programme planning and execution, the Centre has sought to develop a group of meaningful activities, interpreting UGC guidelines flexibly to match client demand. The Centre has negotiated skilfully with UGC, arguing their case on all relevant issues. In order to give practical shape to their professional development programme, for instance, the Centre has recommended, through the Vice-Chancellor of the university, that a senior teacher in every teaching and research department in the university be nominated to have responsibility for professional development activities and to give substantial time to the work of the Centre.

With this broad-based structure, headed by a Director, CPDHE has to date organised 75 orientation and refresher courses in which 1,900 teachers have participated, 1,200 of whom are from Delhi University alone. For the majority this was the first time they had attended any professional renewal programme since completing their doctorates/master's degrees.

Data collected and analysed by the Centre revealed that the majority of clients attempting to vary teaching styles on completion of CPDHE programmes had little support from their institutions or elsewhere in the post-training period. Centre staff reviewed their efforts and are experimenting with an outreach approach where a mobile team carries the programme to a college, developing its details according to the faculty's own needs analysis findings. The objective is to work with the college in partnership in the belief that change will be effected on a more permanent basis.

Other innovative strategies include development of low cost instrumentation for science and technology personnel and retraining of college teachers not only to cope with new syllabi but to renew curricula.

Source: N K UBEROI, *'Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education – a Perspective Paper'* presented at the Workshop on Upgradation of Pedagogical Skills by Distance Mode, December 1-5, 1992, New Delhi

A national staff development office

In the UK the Universities Staff Development Unit (USDU) is located in one university (the University of Sheffield) and has the responsibility to oversee the existing range of nationally provided courses, and to stimulate provision 'for the training and development of all categories of university staff in order to improve their performance and that of the institution' (USDU Annual Report: 1991). The Unit operates through a national network of organisations and staff development activities with the aim of enhancing their effectiveness, focusing on strategic and arguably cost-effective operations. Staff numbers are minimal and each member has both geographical and subject-based responsibilities. The Unit expects to be self-supporting in the near future.

Regional arrangements

64 a) Regional university systems such as the University of the West Indies (UWI), which has campuses in more than one member country (Barbados, Jamaica and Trinidad), tend to invest co-ordinating responsibility centrally with support in sister campuses. At UWI, staff development matters come under the Office of Academic Affairs which collaborates with faculties, research units and other relevant offices such as the Board of Graduate Studies, the Research and Publications Fund Committee, the University Appointments Committee, and the University Assessment Committee. Currently, the three campus Registries take on formal procedural tasks such as information dissemination on awards and fellowships, processing applications for leave and travel and the administrative aspects of recruitment: faculties and departments promote and monitor staff development activities within departments, identifying needs and participating in recruitment and training of potential staff. Among implementation difficulties expressed by individual staff members are those of cohesion and co-ordination.

b) The University of the South Pacific, also characterised by multiple campuses, has recently initiated a Staff Development Unit whose Staff Development Committee works with individual departments across campuses primarily in the identification of training needs.

Networks

65 Several staff development centres have strengthened their knowledge and experience bases by participating in **national and international networks** of universities. Under the section on national arrangements, it was seen that the USDU style of operations depended greatly on networking with institutions throughout the country. The University of Manitoba's Centre for Higher Education Research and Development has professional associates from universities across North America and other parts of the world working with Centre staff. In Europe, between 1978 and 1981, projects on 'Staff Mobility' were undertaken, participants of which included the universities of Aachen, the Free University of Berlin, Copenhagen, London and Utrecht. Activities were funded by national ministries of Education and the Commission of the European

Community. Based on this initial work, more formal networks of institutions have been established nationally and regionally on the basis of mutually shared interests.

a) The European Network Staff Development in Higher Education (SIC), a UNESCO project, provides an illustration of **regional and international networking**, having initiated co-operation with networks in Africa and Latin America. Here the **collaboration is between developing country and developed country institutions** investing in staff development activities (e.g. exchange of staff, workshops, exchange of materials and media) that are of mutual benefit.

b) A variant of a) may be identified in the **nationally-organised structures that nurture collaboration between a national (rather than regional) network of higher education institutions and an international system**, fostering among other activities staff development work. Models of this exist in the Association of Universities and Colleges in Canada and the Association of Canadian Community Colleges. Both respond to directions from their member institutions, doing outreach work with national and international institutions, forming linkages/ partnerships in areas of mutual interest. The establishment of linkages is a prerequisite to the possibility of securing staff development opportunities as awards are linked to institutional development rather than made on an individual basis with the aim of spreading the impact beyond the individual. Funding for activities stems from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) which is the main Canadian source of funding for international development projects. With its headquarters in Canada, CIDA has a network of programme or country desks in regions and countries with which it has an active, on-going working relationship.

c) Following a workshop on 'Staff Development and Improvement of University Teaching' held in Benin, Nigeria in October 1991, a regional network is being attempted in West Africa including universities in Ghana, Nigeria and Sierra Leone with University of Benin acting as overall co-ordinator. In some cases donor agencies play a role in the establishment of such networks as in the case of the USDESA Network which is to receive funding for a series of activities from a consortium of donors. Box 15 provides a profile of the network's objectives. More recently these concerns have become part of the agenda for the Donors to African Education (DAE) group of agencies.

Funding

66 In developed country institutions, policy-level acceptance of the institutionalisation of staff development at post-secondary level grows apace. This is aided by consolidation in policy and informed decisions regarding structure and programmes. Longer-term rather than short-term funding strategies have also gained support from management with allocations generally seen as an investment which will result in long-term quality improvement. But in many cases the commitment to funding seldom matches policy development.

Box 15 The University Staff Development in Eastern and Southern Africa Network (USDESA)

The USDESA Network consists of 15 participating universities in the sub-region who exchange information, organise joint activities, and share resource persons and experiences in the area of staff development. Its aim is to promote professional staff development activities among members and the sub-region. USDESA was formed in 1991 and emerged from a series of workshops for staff development 'facilitators' sponsored by the German Foundation for International Development. At the last workshop held at the University of Zimbabwe, Harare, participants produced a mission statement on staff development, ... established a Co-ordination Committee to organise the network, introduced a newsletter (USDESA Newsletter). Since then joint activities have continued and the co-ordination committee have formulated a constitution and drawn up plans for sponsorship by donors from 1993. This will require the establishment of a small secretariat based at the University of Zimbabwe in Harare, together with specific sub-regional projects to tackle selected problems. Other key objectives include a membership drive, the promotion of staff development units within member universities, the sharing and exchange of resource persons within the sub-region, and the provision of joint research activities and information dissemination.

Source: M H KNOTT, Co-ordinator, USDESA Network, University of Zimbabwe, Harare

67 Institutional arrangements for funding vary considerably around the globe, some examples of which follow:

a) Funding allocations are made from the central administration of institutions to staff development units/centres for conducting appropriate programmes.
b) Allocations are made to departments/faculties to manage as they think fit (e.g. buy in external consultants).
c) Some arrangement are a combination of a) and b).
d) Allocations are made to institutions from central government administration (e.g. University Grants Commission in Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka).
e) Allocations come from central administration as well as outside sources such as industry and aid agencies.
f) Allocations from donor agencies provide the major source of funds for staff development activities in many developing countries, as in the case of USDESA which received funds from different donor sources tied to staff development.
g) Self-financing may become a viable option for some efficient staff development centres as demand increases for their programmes and services; staff earn either their entire, or proportion of, salary through external contracts (e.g. Manitoba and McGill).

68 The 'market forces' school of thought strongly supports activities such as offering external training programmes or consultancies. In such cases providers, in competing for clients, within and external to institutions including overseas, are compelled to constantly upgrade/update their programmes in order to maintain market leadership.

Perceptions of staff development functions

69 This survey of staff development policy and organisational structures observed diverse ways in which providers perceived or performed their functions. Some limited their function to that of facilitators where they commissioned programmes delivered by either internal or external suppliers; of professionals who delivered training programmes in response to requests from academic and general staff; of members of an enterprise whose job it was not only to satisfy clients but also to ensure quality and productivity; as consultants to academic staff and university-wide committees on issues related to staff development policy and practice; and of researchers and disseminators of research findings on staff development issues, of relevance to the community of scholars they serve both nationally and internationally.

Monitoring, appraisal and reward

70 The most widespread monitoring mechanism is that of **reporting** on a regular basis to peers, heads of departments, high-level University Committees specially convened for the purpose, and Vice-Chancellors. The weight/importance attributed to such reports may be measured by the extent to which they are used within the university system, i.e. have been institutionalised, for example, through references in planning documents. Annual reports of teaching and research achievements are given increasingly high profiles in university publications and press releases.

71 **Support for procedures directed to evaluation of teaching** is offered by staff development centres on some campuses. This may include setting up a system of evaluation by heads of departments, peers and students, 'ensuring that all staff performance [is] regularly evaluated and providing for the constructive use of these evaluations for the improvement of staff performance' (University of Auckland, 1991). Academic staff have also been encouraged to conduct self-appraisals and appraisals of departmental course offerings as well as to use student evaluation (see Box 16) to improve teaching effectiveness.

72 The practice of **departmental reviews** (Box 17) is seen in many institutions as an effective mechanism for combining self-review (at departmental level) of activities and achievements with forward planning/ setting of objectives and identification of professional development requirements, including pedagogical and/or management training. Departmental Reviews are becoming established practices in the UK and in Canada (most notably the Universities of Alberta and McGill). The Jarratt Committee identified three main objectives which a 'regular review procedure, handled with sensitivity' should work towards (Jarratt Committee, 1983):

Box 16 Student evaluation of teaching

... a review of research in universities in the US and European countries, by Christopher Husbands at the LSE (London School of Economics) has shown that a number of factors can sway student judgements about their teachers. Evidence shows students could be excessively influenced by flamboyant lecturing deliveries, while researchers have detected 'halo ratings' from students hoping for high grades.

A multitude of other factors can affect student satisfaction, including class sizes, the gender and ethnicity of the teacher vis-a-vis that of the student, whether the course is optional or compulsory, a student's intrinsic interest in the subject matter, seniority of the teacher, competence of the student and even the time, day or the week of the lecture ... .

Source: JENNICE BROOKMAN, 'Feedback that is hard to swallow', *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, December 25, 1993

Box 17 Departmental Reviews

The practice of 'Departmental Reviews' is increasingly seen as an effective mechanism for combining self-review (at departmental level) of activities and achievements with forward planning/setting of objectives and identification of professional development requirements, including pedagogical or management training. Departmental reviews became established firstly in Australia, and this is generally where models are sought, although the practice is now firmly established in the UK (particularly the Universities of Southampton and Birmingham) and in Canada (most notably the University of Alberta and McGill University).

Departmental reviews have become more frequently used in the climate of external scepticism about the value and quality of higher education, now prevalent throughout much of Europe, Australia and North America. In some cases departmental reviews have been introduced as a means of avoiding external (and very much more intrusive) assessment of teaching in institutions of higher education, or, alternatively, as a means of enhancing existing practices in advance of formal external scrutiny.

Models for departmental review vary to a certain extent, depending upon whether reviews are seen as either 'accountable self-review' designed to improve performance, or as a managerial tool to monitor standards with the possibility of merging departments, closing them down, etc. The literature suggests that the former is very much more effective as a means of improving overall performance, although it is resource-intensive (in terms of both requiring staff time and the appointment of external reviewers). One of the primary requirements for successful departmental reviews will be a suitable pool of potential external members for the review panel, with appropriate standing in and knowledge of the discipline/field to be reviewed, as well as an understanding of the institution itself. Substantial amounts of information - depending on the review's design and objectives - will be submitted in advance of a review.

Source: R MCDONALD and E ROE, *Reviewing Departments*, HERDSA Green Guide Series, 1990

- recognition of the contribution made by individuals
- assistance for individuals to develop their full potential as quickly as possible
- assistance for the university to make the most effective use of its academic staff.

73 Departmental Reviews have become more frequently used in the climate of scepticism about the value and quality of higher education, now prevalent throughout much of Europe, Australia and North America. In some cases they have been introduced as a means of avoiding external (and very much more

Box 18 Reviewing Departments

McDonald and Roe suggest that terms of reference would normally include the following, adapted to suit particular institutions:

a) The appropriateness, quality and balance of the curriculum and the quality of teaching;
b) The appropriateness, quality and balance of research development/professional activities carried out within the department;
c) Whether accommodation, facilities, allocation of teaching/research/equipment funds, internal administration, institutional policies and administration, support structures and staffing arrangements are serving the department and the students adequately;
d) Whether there is adequate liaison between this department and cognate departments, the rest of the institution, and relevant outside bodies.

A review panel would be asked to comment on the following:

e) Whether the department should continue in its present form, and whether any changes should be made to its structure;
f) Desirable future directions for the department.

Further comments may be requested from the review panel as appropriate, for example how new developments might be funded by contractions elsewhere.

Studies indicate the importance of institutional preparations for such activities, and that adoption of departmental reviews should be evolutionary, to ensure that the process is accepted and the opportunities it presents are properly utilised. It is emphasised that the process is at departmental level, and close evaluation of individuals should not be undertaken. Reviews can however feed into needs analyses for institutional training needs and improve utilisation of the various skills within a department, as well as providing a satisfactory quality assurance mechanism and also providing information for institution-wide planning policies.

Some institutions include administrative and service departments within the review process.

Source: R McDonald and E Roe, *Reviewing Departments*, HERDSA Green Guide Series, 1990

intrusive) assessment of teaching in institutions of higher education, or, alternatively, as a means of enhancing existing practices in advance of formal external scrutiny. The literature suggests that the 'accountable self-review' model designed to improve performance, although resource-intensive, is more effective as a means of improving overall performance than the 'managerial tool' model of monitoring standards with the hidden agenda of possibly merging departments, closing them down, etc. (See Box 18 for the terms of reference review committees might work to.)

74 With growing interest in the appraisal of effective teaching and its links with merit awards, promotion exercises and annual salary increments as well, achievement of standards related to teaching skills are becoming in many ways integral to academic life, although not achieving parity status with research and publication outputs. Staff development units report increasing requests for their publications and research findings in related areas as well as assistance in designing, producing and processing student questionnaires for the purpose of course and teaching evaluation. One major result of this level of institutionalisation of staff development concepts is the demand from staff for access to quality support programmes.

75 Two contrasting views are held regarding links between appraisal and promotion or other systems of reward. The first perceives appraisal as a means of improving performance and self-development and not as a judgemental tool; the second position holds that it will serve a limited function and tangible results can only be effected if such links are made. At present there is increasing external pressure to introduce explicit links between appraisal and promotion (see Box 19), as pressure for the introduction of performance-related pay

Box 19 Performance-related promotion procedures

The promotion procedures have introduced a weighting scheme such that a candidate can maximise the opportunity for promotion through weighting the candidate's strengths. However, candidates must demonstrate performance in all the areas of teaching, research and scholarship, and service. For promotion to Reader/Associate Professor, for example, the minimum and maximum weightings are as follows:

- teaching: minimum 3, maximum 5
- research and scholarship: minimum 3, maximum 5
- service: minimum 2, maximum 4.

A further important initiative is that members of promotion panels are required to participate in a training programme. The first such training programme ... paid particular attention to examining the criteria for promotion, sources of evidence, and panel meeting procedures. The evaluation of teaching was used as a vehicle to explore the concepts of reliability and validity in the making of judgements about candidates.

Source: ROBERT A. CANNON 'Quality in University Teaching: A Case Study of the University of Adelaide', Advisory Centre for University Education, The University of Adelaide, 1991

increases. While appraisal is now almost universally in place throughout higher education institutions in many developed country institutions, doubt exists about the efficacy of current systems, existing as they do in a climate of widespread scepticism. Without sufficient training, and without any mechanism to reward improvement in performance, staff often lack motivation to make proper use of the appraisal systems which exist.

76 Public resources need to be responsibly used: staff performance monitoring mechanisms are required to be in place together with a systematic programme of staff development activities. One such group of mechanisms is set down in the University of Auckland's official *Guidelines for a Programme of Academic Staff Development and Evaluation*. Academic performance is systematically evaluated and open to assessment by heads of departments and appraisal by Committees of Council and Senate, when staff members are considered for continuation of initial appointment; for promotion across a salary bar requiring resolution of Councillors; and for application for research and study leave. Academic staff's professional development is supported by planning for a balanced workload; a research and study leave programme; informally arranged support from academic mentors and peers; and resources offered through the university staff development units, especially for teaching evaluation procedures and teaching techniques. Recent initiatives relating to promotion policy and procedure, implemented at the University of Adelaide, require applicants for promotion to provide evidence from a variety of sources of performance as teachers.

77 Part of the debate on quality improvement mechanisms perceives maintenance of quality as the state's inherent responsibility, bringing with it prescriptive guidelines regarding courses. Part of the argument, growing in strength, sees 'quality assurance' in higher education evolving through the introduction of new monitoring and evaluation systems, by which institutions are charged with the responsibility of maintaining quality themselves.

78 Those who support the second view believe that developments such as quality assurance, appraisal, departmental reviews will do far more for 'embedding' staff and professional development within organisational cultures than anything else. Most have been introduced, as in the case of the United Kingdom, as a result of external pressure, whether through legislation or application of 'performance indicator' pressure. This approach has brought with it the real danger of staff resistance to the potential benefits of new procedures, and must be very carefully handled. For instance, the formal introduction of appraisal was introduced into the university sector in 1985 in the United Kingdom (Jarratt Report, 1983) and delays which have deferred full implementation have been attributed to uncertainties and fears (Bull, 1990).

Constraints

79 Recurring themes relating to constraints faced by institutions providing staff development support include the following:

Attendance

Among the reasons given for low attendance at staff development programmes are:

- under-staffed institutions cannot release personnel easily
- distances imply need for extra resources for transport
- vacation courses pose problems for women staff with young children
- a generally complex set of formal administrative procedures in many developing country institutions which make access to staff development training and resources problematic to individual staff members.

(See Box 20 for a report of the constraints facing Indian higher education institutions.)

Identification of appropriate trainers

In some cases reviewed, trainers were themselves inadequately prepared and were sorely in need of further academic and professional training themselves, and funds in many cases for honoraria were scarce.

Inadequate resources

Funding clearly influenced important aspects of support for training: for example, the dearth of resources available for instructional and reference materials, and acquisition of international journals constituted major problems; physical space for training sessions and for equipment required was difficult to come by.

Quality of programmes

Appropriate professional leadership is required to breathe life into many programmes that are designed at the outset, typically at a central institution, and rarely reviewed for adaptation to the changing needs of staff and local environments; or widening training remits without a commensurate level of policy and implementational support. There may also be insufficient numbers of experienced faculty members who could plan and lead well-defined research programmes that would keep the institutional programmes on the cutting edge of staff development issues and concerns.

Perception of programmes

Insufficient attention has been paid to weaving staff development concerns into the warp and woof of institutions. Staff development programmes are seen as an overlay or an extra tier rather than as integral to daily professional work; in instances where attendance of staff development training courses has been made a prerequisite for promotion, the tendency exists to complete a programme for formal purposes with little carry-over into professional life.

Lessons drawn

80 The continuing experimentation of higher education institutions with structures and organisations in support of staff development activities yields some important findings relating to practice.

a) Co-ordination among the various academic/personnel/ educational/and academic support units should be a major concern.

b) Equally important is the drawing up of clear lines of responsibility between the various groups.

Box 20 Teaching reforms bite the dust

India's big plan to improve teaching quality in its rapidly expanding higher education system is in trouble following the closure of several academic staff colleges.

Under the Academic Staff Orientation Scheme, launched five years ago by the University Grants Orientation Scheme, launched five years ago by the University Grants Commission, 48 colleges were created throughout the country to upgrade the skills of a quarter of a million lecturers working in 180 universities and 7,000 colleges.

But running the colleges has proved too expensive for the UGC and the colleges have failed dismally to teach anywhere near the number of lecturers envisaged.

So far only 40,000 lecturers have attended upgrading courses. At that rate it would take 25 years or more to reach the target – assuming no new universities or colleges were established and the scheme is due to end in 1995.

The commission's concern about teaching quality – a direct result of massive higher education expansion, to around 430,000 students in the past 40 years – has been reflected in several measures over the years.

These include the 'teaching fellowships' of the 1960s, university leadership improvement programmes of the 1970s, and staff development colleges of the 1980s.

Expansion enabled the creation across the country of sub-standard colleges – especially in semi-urban and urban areas – and resulted in the recruitment of ill-prepared and unmotivated teachers, which badly affected teaching quality.

This was not, the UGC believes, for lack of talent but because of a crippling shortage of money and bad training combined with poor libraries, equipment and facilities. Colleges have had extremely limited opportunities for staff development. These problems have been compounded by a large influx of ill-prepared students.

Radical academics have suggested that poor quality in many Indian institutions have devalued degrees to such an extent that they should be dropped as a prerequisite for some jobs.

The creation of academic staff colleges was intended to improve teaching quality through two kinds of courses: orientation courses for lecturers with less than eight years experience; and refresher courses for more experienced teachers.

Although the actual format of curricula are left to staff colleges themselves, the UGC suggested four-week orientation courses concentrating on education philosophy, subject developments, management and personality, and links between education and other aspects of society. The refresher courses keep teachers up to date with development within their disciplines.

The UGC tried to provide an incentive to lecturers to improve their classroom performance by linking participation in staff development courses with career advancement schemes.

Now, to cut down on spending on academic colleges and to try to reach more teachers, the UGC is considering creating long-distance staff development courses.

But this proposal has sparked controversy among the colleges, which do not want to lose their work, especially when long-distance learning has yet to establish its credentials in India, they argue.

Source: 'Teaching reforms bite the dust', *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, 30 October 1992

c) Effective direction with clear mandates, goals and objectives and visible support from top management are essential features.

d) Proper attention needs to be given to the title and grade of a staff development unit head; academic credibility among peers is essential for proper implementation of tasks.

e) Naming of a unit is equally significant as names/labels give emphasis to its major goals, e.g. teaching mandates, professional development, etc. Changing remits should be reflected in the name.

f) The mechanism of seconding staff to assume staff development duties has a value beyond resolving current resource constraints: expertise can also be shared more widely.

g) Resources need to keep pace with policy development; instituting structures and programmes which cannot be sustained is not only wasteful but raises expectations with negative consequences for staff morale.

Part 5: Meeting Staff Development Challenges

81 The challenges facing providers of staff development programmes were identified in Part 1. In this section, an attempt is made to highlight what providers who responded to this study have done to meet those challenges.

Academic development

82 **Providing opportunities for prospective and existing academic staff to obtain higher levels of academic and professional qualifications was a major priority for the large majority of developing country universities.** University administrations had set up various scholarship and award schemes for staff training, either funded locally or though donor assistance, with considerable attention paid to terms and conditions which influence such schemes, to selection criteria, to rules governing eligibility and study leave opportunities (see Box 21 for some categories of leave provided for by the University of Hong Kong). Attention was given to trainee schemes for young people, where programmes are seen as investments towards institutional development in the long-term, as well as to supporting areas where workforce shortages were crucial, such as engineering, science and technology. (Thailand has, since 1990, initiated a scheme for 90 awards annually until 1994 for study abroad in such fields.)

83 In order to increase the number of qualified staff meeting basic academic criteria, universities have set minimum standards for qualifications and requirements. Thailand's Seventh Higher Education Development Plan 1992-1996, Ministry of University Affairs, has specified the target distribution of staff qualifications for state university instructors in the ratio of 3:6:1 at the Doctorate, Master and Bachelor levels and are providing resources and training mechanisms to meet the targets. Tanzanian universities require a PhD for a lecturer's appointment. Tanzania's two universities increased the required supply of qualified academic staff through a mixture of short courses, sabbaticals, overseas training and sandwich programmes.

84 An issue of particular concern is that of retaining qualified staff once they have been trained, the brain drain being of particular significance in cases of overseas training locations. This is especially true in areas of specialisation such as management or scientific and technological disciplines where industry offers manifold attractions. Vigorous policies of nationalising staff as well as of establishing local training programmes have been established by universities in order to increase staff retention rates. This policy has resulted in many countries, such as those in Asia and Latin America, with largely local staff except in cases of new and highly specialised fields of study.

Box 21 Categories of leave

a) Clinical Training Leave (for teachers in clinical teaching departments.

b) Special leave for any academic or professional purpose, for example:

- attending, or participating in, an academic or professional conference, congress or other learned meeting
- collecting research data
- visiting another institution as an external examiner, an honorary lecturer, or an adviser
- participating in an academic exchange programme.

c) Study leave:

- study leave
- the award of study leave passages and emoluments
- the award of grants for the acquisition of research techniques outside the university while on study leave or long leave with or without full pay but not for the purpose of reading for a higher degree or other qualification
- the award of grants for approved visits for study and/or research purposes while on study leave or long leave with or without full pay
- the award of grants to cover in full or in part the required fees for acquisition of research techniques (including Chinese language) within the university but not for the purpose of reading for a higher degree or other qualification.

Source: University of Hong Kong, *Staff Manual, Terms of Service I*, September 1991

85 Some institutions maintain a degree of expatriate presence, perceiving this as providing a healthy international context for local teaching and research as well as maintaining international competitiveness. The University of Singapore has as a policy employed between 15 and 20 per cent of expatriate staff with the aim of placing the university squarely within the mainstream of international higher education and research. Universities in Africa, slower in achieving their desired target for localisation, are still watchful over the proportion of expatriate staff. The Eduardo Mondlane University, Mozambique which on independence in 1975 inherited only 2.5 per cent local staff has now 60 per cent local staff (Maitru, 1990a:34). Sokoine University in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania has now only 10 expatriate staff members out of a staff of 210 (ibid:36). Higher education institutions in Botswana submit five-year localisation plans and specify understudies to expatriate positions, which are retained but at a minimum. At Addis Ababa localisation is the guiding principle but a certain mix of international and local staff is considered essential, with 80 per cent local staff as the target. Zambia, which at independence had a large proportion of expatriate staff and still is faced with a shortage of candidates due to attractive alternative employment outside the country, lack of candidates in the pipeline and absence

of career opportunities, has made training of local staff a priority. A Staff Development Committee directly under the Deputy Vice-Chancellor monitors all staff development activities including selection and awarding of fellowships and ensuring Zambianisation is carried out throughout the different levels of position (Maitru 1990a:42-43).

Instructional skills

86 **Improving teaching/instructional skills** was a major goal of programmes reviewed (although in national appraisals in many countries such as the United Kingdom research activities clearly took precedence as criteria for increasing funding allocations). These included orientation programmes for new staff, most of which provided an introduction to pedagogical skills as well as general introductory information on the environment of post-secondary education in the country and internationally. Other content areas throughout the staff member's career included modules on approaches to teaching large classes, curriculum development, designing lectures with the support of educational technology, methods of student assessment, preparation of testing items, and motivating students to study independently. Box 22 gives illustrations of course topics offered by some providers.

87 Assistance was given to staff members to design and participate in research programmes with a focus on improvement in teaching-learning at the post-secondary level. Some units were required to undertake relevant institutional research that fed into their own programmes or the university's planning processes. Support was given to individual departments to conduct research in relation to their special disciplines, to topics jointly researched by staff development centre personnel and departments, and to staff development centre members who linked their research to assessment of on-going activities such as innovations in teaching-learning methodology and training programmes (for instance, Manitoba's Centre for Higher Education Research and Development where research is a major driving force of activities). Linkages with a focus on pedagogical quality improvement were noted among researchers across countries (e.g. the activities of the European Network Staff Development in Higher Education referred to in Part 4).

Professional and career development

88 The mission statements of a large proportion of staff development providers included the aim of meeting the staff need for focused and sustained professional and career development in post secondary/higher education. Attempts have been made by some universities (such as University of Adelaide) to integrate the improvement of instructional skills in the professional development status of university teachers and as a way of enhancing their career development. Providers were expected to demonstrate leadership in conducting, managing, supporting and disseminating the findings of research activities with the goal of strengthening staff members' academic and professional abilities and standing. Professional development opportunities were given to staff through mechanisms such as consultancies and visiting assignments, study visits, academic exchange, support for participation in expert meetings, the establishment

Box 22 Staff development programme course topics

Courses for staff earlier in their career	
Preparing and giving lecturers	50.8
Small group teaching	50.8
Writing research grant applications	34.3
Making assessments and examinations	32.9
Counselling students	32.9
Supervising research students	32.9

Courses for experienced staff	
Lecturing	61.2
Applications for research grants	58.2
Small group teaching	52.2
Research supervision	49.2
Marketing/media presentation	35.4

Table 1: Great Britain

Range of courses in the past 2 years (Brown, 1989)

a) Planning – Organisation – Evaluation of University Teaching: 9 Offers (e.g. 'How to organise teaching and learning by lecturing, small group teaching and independent studies', 'Psychological-didactic preparation of a teaching sequence', 'Teaching large numbers of students', 'Motivation and activation by new forms of teaching and learning'.)
b) Communication – Co-operation in University Teaching: 6 Offers (e.g 'Improving teaching-behaviour and assessment strategies', 'Student Counselling', 'Rhetoric')
c) Role – Profession – Status of the University Teacher: 3 Offers (e.g. 'Conflict situations at work and possible solutions', 'The role of the university teacher in the face of conflicting demands of science, teaching and personal interests')
d) University Didactics in the Polytechnic: 2 Offers. (e.g 'Basic course in university didactics', 'Presentation of results of research into higher education')
e) Introductory Courses for the Training of Teaching Assistants

Table 2: Federal Republic of Germany

Most successful courses from West German staff development centres offered by the national network (extract)

a) The role of universities in developing countries
b) Course design
c) Evaluation of course design
d) Communication and use of media
e) Small group activities
f) Evaluation of small group activities
g) Independent studies
h) Strategies for implementing staff development units
i) Organisation and management of staff development units

Table 3: DSE-sponsored series of programmes 'Improving Teaching and Learning in African Universities'

Offers of workshops (1983-1987)

Source: BRIGITTE BERENDT and JOACHIM STARY (eds.), *Proceedings of the 6th EARDHE Conference 1st-5th October, 1990*

and support of appropriate postgraduate programmes, schemes to encourage publication of texts as well as research findings, and participation in national and international research networks. Strategic planning initiatives at departmental and institutional levels in a growing number of universities provided critical assistance in the rationalisation of the various mechanisms, moving towards a balance between institutional and individual goals.

Management skills

89 Management and administration training for academic and administrative staff in many countries preceded other areas in systematically organised staff training programmes. The effective management of higher education institutions in the face of rapid changes has developed as an identifiable body of knowledge with its own distinctive content and training programmes which have been recognised and institutionalised in both developing and developed countries. A case in point is the complex of staff development bodies and activities in India which has management as a major component with centrally laid-out training guidelines in the basic orientation programme for staff. The major thrust of the training content for NIEPA included various aspects of university administration and finance and conflict management.

90 At the Centre for Higher Education Research and Development (CHERD), University of Manitoba, the stated aim is to serve as an 'organisational vehicle to translate knowledge into practice in effective management of educational institutions and in teaching and learning'. Two constituencies are served by the Centre: senior academics engaged in management of higher education; and teachers, administrators and public servants who are interested in utilising results of higher education research. Currently CHERD has a member of staff who runs the University Teaching Services from CHERD itself.

Coping with changing technology

91 Helping staff members utilise changing technology was viewed as providing practical assistance directed to improving efficiency in instruction and research. Assistance was given in areas such as the development of computer skills, word processing, and use of media in teaching. Critical to enhancing quality and productivity, was the development of skills which enabled staff to participate in national and international data bases, information and research networks. Developed country institutions possessed know-how in the provision of systematic training in the procurement, use, maintenance and repair of high technology equipment and this was not easily accessed by many developing country institutions.

Part 6: International Assistance in Staff Development

Nature of North-South relations

92 Universities in developing countries were conceived on western models, developing educational structures and processes in their image. Although both the premises and functions of these institutions have shifted ground considerably since their inception, academics in developing countries still perceive themselves as part of the larger international academic community competing in the global exchange of knowledge. Recognition among this body of intellectuals often takes precedence over their roles and functions within the local context where demands are made to provide leadership and guidance in national matters. Teaching, curriculum and research activities are often well integrated into this international network of knowledge.

93 From the start, then, universities throughout the developing countries have continued to be dominated intellectually by the traditional centres of intellectual advancement in the industrialised countries. The dominance of the central 'foundation' is clearly demonstrated in the forms taken by the knowledge apparatus and its manner of distribution. Most commonly the countries in the periphery are dependent on the 'centres' for their massive research output, their deep-rooted and extensive volume of publishing activities, their technologically-based and sophisticated mass communication and information systems as well as their advanced and established training facilities. The dependency of developing countries is seen as spiralling upwards as research and publication outputs surge forward, creating other categories of dependency which include language, finances, academic training, and granting of copyrights - all of which serve to enhance the unequal relationship that exists between institutions of the industrialised and the developing countries. This neo-colonialist relationship is generally characterised by the directions of communication and information where peripheral countries continue to be receivers rather than creators of new knowledge; the buyers and leasers of trained staff rather than producers; and the imitators rather than the innovators of intellectual trends in research (Altbach, 1982:48).

94 The centre-periphery flow was reflected most clearly in the nature and interactions evident in staff development activities related to improving teaching/learning competence during the 1970s. A pattern of relations pertaining to staff development activities between developed countries of the North and developing countries of the South emerged in which academics from the developed countries were invited to visit and appraise staff development needs in the developing countries; recommended strategies for initiating programmes seen as meeting the perceived needs in the institutions of the

developing countries; organised and conducted workshops in developing countries on university teaching methods; and provided training for personnel of future teaching service units in the developing countries.

95 Activities of this nature succeeded in stemming the flow of large numbers to the North and generated staff development activities in Third World countries themselves, but in many instances of transporting experts from the North to the South, universities in the South nevertheless continued to be completely dominated by a small group of experts from one university. They controlled, gave direction and determined the flow of models and materials to the extent that the developing countries were dependent on this lifeline to the established universities.

International assistance programmes

96 Over the last three decades, external assistance has made considerable impact in providing for the initial recruitment of staff. Most universities in developing countries boast a long list of staff trained in established institutions of industrialised countries. Agencies such as the British Council, the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, the Fulbright Fellowship and the Colombo Plan Scholarships were responsible for the training of large numbers of academics in the metropolitan universities.

97 The Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan ilustrates their function. The Plan which began operating in 1960 'was created to enable Commonwealth students of high intellectual promise to pursue studies in Commonwealth countries other than their own so that on their return home they could make a distinctive contribution to life in their own countries and to mutual understanding in the Commonwealth'. (Association of Commonwealth Universities Year Book 1991: 2757). By the 1970s American foreign aid agencies played a significant role in overcoming critical staff shortages by training personnel for the universities of the Third World. Training comprised primarily providing knowledge and research skills in the different disciplines that were taught in these universities. Many American aid agencies, the most prominent among which were the Carnegie, Ford Foundation and Rockefeller, subscribed to the belief that developing countries needed a critical number of staff that would constitute the core of new universities. They proceeded to initiate two crucial mechanisms: firstly, programmes were introduced that enabled a large number of existing or potential staff from selected universities and faculties to proceed to a university in the west, preferably in the United States of America, for a postgraduate programme of research and study. Secondly, while this core of staff were undergoing training in the United States a small group of professors from American universities took up positions in the developing countries for a short stipulated period of time.

98 Foreign aid agencies therefore influenced the institutional building of universities in developing countries by providing a core of staff trained in the basic disciplines in developed country universities, by establishing the administrative and curricular structures and by identifying and giving direction to research. Some played an important part in the supply of materials, equipment and libraries as well as in designing and supervising the building of physical plants (Singh and Mukherjee, 1985).

99 During the last decade better awareness of staff development needs in developing countries has brought about considerable changes in the practices and programmes that donors have promoted. A healthy tendency is now evident for aid agencies to respond positively to issues of relevance and flow between developing and developed countries. In their aid programmes most agencies highlight the strengthening of indigenous institutions through the development of local human resources. They indicate a strong desire to direct their efforts at revitalising developing country institutions through strengthening the teaching, research and administrative capacities of institutions in developing countries (Coombe, 1989). Increasingly, the needs of developing countries are arrived at through consultation with all parties concerned. This may be done in a number of ways. From the donor countries, resources of a consortium of universities and institutes of higher learning are often made available through an international funding agency as in the case of the International Development Programme of Australian Universities and Colleges. Exchanges may also take place on a one-to-one basis between university departments or individuals through the establishment of a formal link or a memorandum of understanding.

100 A review of the staff development practices in developing countries sponsored by international agencies reveals a wide range of activities which simultaneously address one or more of the staff development needs of these institutions (see Box 23). Support mechanisms comprise:

Consultancies and visiting assignments
These are intended for the interchange of ideas and the transmission of specific knowledge and techniques lacking in local capabilities.

Study visits
Those already in university teaching and administration in developing countries are provided opportunities for professional development in donor countries.

Awards and fellowships
Offered largely for postgraduate training at master's and doctoral level in advanced developed countries they constitute the most common form of donor assistance.

In-country training
Through support for seminars, conferences and workshops in the developing countries new knowledge, skills and technologies are transmitted or exchanged.

Split-site degrees
In most instances split-site degree courses are arranged with the degrees awarded from the developed countries (as in the case of Leicester University, Britain and Sunway College, Malaysia). In some instances joint accreditation is undertaken as seen in the joint PhD (Transport) programme of York University, Canada and University of Indonesia. Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) programmes for graduate training centred around research projects permit a balanced flow of students receiving part of the training in both countries, and certification in either country. Most agencies are now encouraging their candidates from developing countries studying in developed country institutions to carry out their research in their own countries.

Box 23 Selected international assistance programmes in staff development of higher education institutions

Support for staff development remains at the heart of the Rockefeller Foundation's programmes of assistance to higher education in Africa and takes a variety of forms:

- full-cost PhD fellowships in agriculture and health
- support for MA and MSc level programmes in demography/ population
- a dissertation awards scheme designed to encourage those doing a PhD to do a thesis based on field work in their home country or region
- various research award schemes designed to provide an intellectual incentive to mid-level and senior staff members of universities throughout the continent, aiming at the same time to contribute to the stock of teaching materials.

The concern behind all these activities is the state of the scientific community in Africa and the need to help strengthen it.

Source: DAVID COURT, Rockefeller Foundation, letter to P R C Williams, Director, Education Programme, Commonwealth Secretariat, 9.3.90

Activities of the International Development Programme of Australian Universities and Colleges (IDP), in its Core Programme are directed towards institutional strengthening through staff development. Although books, equipment and infrastructure support may be supplied as part of an integrated programme, the prime focus is on the development of human resources. Through discussions with their counterparts in the target institutions, IDP consultants recommend a variety of training and institution strengthening activities:

- secondments of Australian staff to participating facilities or institutions
- visiting assignments by Australian staff
- fellowships for overseas staff tenable in Australia
- short courses led by Australian staff
- study visits and training visits to Australia by overseas staff
- joint research
- preparation and publication of textbooks and teaching manuals
- intensive courses and projects.

Source: KEN BACK, 'Staff Development: International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges (IDP)', *International Development Programmes in Higher Education*, Commonwealth Secretariat, 1989

Developing postgraduate centres in the developing countries

Some are purely export models as the Graduate Institute of Business Administration of Chulalongkorn University in Thailand, staffed entirely by

faculty from North-Western and Pennsylvania Universities in the United States. Others have been established through institutional links with prestigious centres of excellence in developed countries. The Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) and Management (IIMs) as well as the East and South African Management Institute (ESAMI) stand testimony to successful joint ventures.

Establishing postgraduate programmes in the developing countries
This has been undertaken through overseas staff assisting the formation of new programmes and courses; some of the core programmes of IDP, Australia are designed to achieve this (see Box 24).

Instructional materials
Some agencies provide opportunities for collaboration on the preparation, translation and publication of textbooks and teaching materials.

Research award schemes
Awarded annually to mid-level and senior staff members of institutions of higher learning, they contribute significantly to raising the research capacity and contribute to the stock of teaching materials. International Development

Box 24 Malaysia-IDP Core Programme

The programme is intended to develop priority professional and industry oriented courses in the two Malaysian universities, Universiti Sains Malaysia and Universiti Utara Malaysia, in the fields of Medicine, Nursing, Engineering and Management. The Australian inputs will involve visiting assignments, study visits and fellowships to Australian educational institutions. The Malaysian inputs will involve institutional development costs, operating resources and counterpart resources (under a cost-sharing arrangement of support for visiting assignments and study visits).

The programme is designed to operate for 3 years from July 1989. The estimated cost of Australian inputs is A$1.941 million with the estimated costs of Malaysian inputs amounting to M$1.837 million. On a conservative basis there are over 2,300 beneficiaries at approximately A$800 of Australian inputs per person.

Expected outcomes of Malaysian developments with this Australian assistance include:

- establishment of a number of postgraduate courses for training Medical specialists
- establishment of post-basic Nursing certificate and Diploma courses
- consolidation of quality undergraduate courses in Business Management and Accountancy
- establishment of quality undergraduate courses in Mineral Resources Engineering and Civil Engineering
- establishment of these programmes in new facilities on new sites
- establishment of a School of Management at USM
- development of particular linkages between Malaysian and Australian academics.

Source: Malaysia IDP, CORE Program Design Document 1989/90 - 1991/92 December, 1989

Box 25 IDRC's Fellowships and Awards

The goal in providing support for training is to create the capacity for high-quality research in developing country research institutions and to develop Third World training institutions to the point where they can meet their own research-related needs. In this way the Fellowships and Awards Division (FAD) contributes to IDRC's objectives of establishing autonomous, independent research and training institutions in the Third World. Ultimately, the people of the developing world will benefit from a supply of highly trained specialists and administrators capable of researching and solving problems crucial to the future of the Third World.

FAD is committed to what it terms the trainer/trainee approach to building research capacity in the Third World. This approach strives to ensure that an investment in training links and strengthens both the institution that provides the training and the institution whose personnel will receive the training.

In south-east Asia, for example, a need was identified for professional expertise in fisheries economics to support current advances in research on tropical fisheries and aquaculture; much of this research was supported by IDRC. Universiti Pertanian Malaysia in Serdang was encouraged in its efforts to offer a Master of Science degree program in fisheries economics. In 1983, FAD started funding candidates to the course. Funds have also been committed to building and teaching capacity at the university and to administer and monitor the course. In this way, the trainees, the institutions to which they belong, and the trainer institution, those providing the training facilities and programmes, all benefit from FAD support. Individuals not associated with an institution may also be selected for training if they are involved in an important area of research.

Although the level and type of training may vary according to the goals of a particular project, programme, or institution, the majority of training funded by FAD is at the master's level. Tenure takes place in training research institutions located, in order of priority, locally, regionally, in Canada, or in another developed country. It is expected that awardees will return to their home country when the award expires.

Source: IDRC pamphlet on Fellowships and Awards

Research Centre (IDRC, Canada) (see Box 25), Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research (ACIAR, Australia), Rockefeller Foundation (USA) and GTZ (Germany) are a few of the international organisations that have made important contributions in this field.

Joint-research projects

Frequently these are planned, monitored and reported by researchers of the developed countries while the researchers of developing countries engage primarily in data gathering. However, a few examples exist of research planned with common involvement in project design, monitoring and evaluation resulting in a joint publication and enjoying international visibility. Such a collaborative mode of joint research is sometimes adopted by the individual research co-ordinator or is written into the research proposal. IDRC research projects quite frequently place the locus of research in the developing countries.

Establishment of research and information networks and data bases
These relate to knowledge upgradings, research dissemination and improvement of teaching in higher education. IDRC has played an important role through support for networks like NORRAG and SERRAG.

Mutual recognition of study units
Achieved to a limited extent within the European Community with the ERASMUS Scheme, this allows flow of students and knowledge from country to country.

Impact of donor assistance

101 Despite the positive contributions listed above, doubts have been frequently expressed about the adequacy and appropriateness of some of the assistance programmes. Notwithstanding the increasing sensitivity of agencies to local agendas, demonstrated by genuine consultative processes, apprehensions include issues regarding orientations of returnees being out-of-step with local problems and issues; movement into job areas other than the ones scholarships are awarded for; maintaining and reinforcing a centre-periphery dependency in knowledge generation; and brain-drain caused by the non-return of students (Strombom, 1989).

102 The review of existing practices reveals that aid agencies have frequently reviewed their programmes and strategies to accommodate developing country needs. At the same time, many policies, although in the desired direction, have not been implemented as agency interests in higher education are based on a variety of considerations. These include economic interests, political mandates, infrastructural variables, the need for high profile and visible activities and other more pragmatic considerations such as agency structures, ease of management, import and foreign exchange restrictions, among others.

Some **misdirected staff development activities** have been noted in:

- the imbalanced flow of students pulling the best students to the industrialised countries leaving the institutions of the south impoverished

- the award of most consultancies to the personnel from donor countries, that is, all staff exchanges and consultancy opportunities create heavy vested interests among donor country professionals who are also seeking opportunities to expand their horizons and improve their own career prospects, work in developing countries providing a challenge and new frontiers of knowledge to conquer

- imbalanced partnership in any relationships of joint research, writing or teaching with a dominant position assumed by the researchers from industrialised countries due to insufficient attention to details that safeguard interests of the staff and institutes of developing countries regarding matters such as right of publication or ownership of knowledge generated

- donor assistance which is unco-ordinated, a situation brought about by the practices of aid agencies working in different geographical areas, and

dealing with a variety of higher education institutions and disciplines; this results in a failure to build a critical mass of indigenous manpower for the development of local higher education

- aid agencies' frequent imposition of their own research and teaching agendas on the developing countries showing little consideration for their needs and strengths, building some and neglecting other often more vital and relevant areas

- inability to work in partnership with local efforts, persuading institutions and individuals to commit to and invest in these initiatives so that the practices take root firmly and are sustained over the long-term: far too often activities flourish for a short-term under the aegis of donor support but wither and dwindle away as soon as the external catalyst is removed.

103 To sum up, staff development needs are already being addressed by the donor agencies but are insufficient in volume generally and fail to meet the training needs for scientific and technological manpower or for special groups such as women. Aid is also not co-ordinated and results in an unbalanced flow of benefits to the developing countries vis-a-vis the developed donor countries (see Box 26). The feeling still persists that a relationship of patronage rather than partnership exists between the donor countries and the recipients (Baba, 1989).

104 The creation of consortia of donor agencies for a specific country or group of countries may enable resources to be put together on a scale that can begin to make a dent in the problems faced by the really disadvantaged and poor countries.

Box 26 What developing Commonwealth countries want

The 'strategic' problems arise from a situation in which, although there exist assistance programmes in almost every area in which we have need, they do not add up to sufficient in quantity, while at the same time they exhibit a wide range of variation in conditions, rules, reporting arrangements and donor preferences. This situation imposes a heavy administrative burden on small universities such as this, and also, I suspect, consumes an unduly high proportion of the aid available on administrative costs in the 'donor' capitals.

There is almost no form of support which does not exist already, usually in several different forms, and from several different sources. What is needed is a greater volume (i.e more resources) and, if possible, also some rationalisation, so that we are not for example having to respond to a number of different surveys of our needs from different donors, and not having to cope with staff development schemes and staff secondments offering a range of different benefits to individuals, often apparently arbitrarily.

Source: Letter from Geoffrey Caston, Vice-Chancellor, USP to P.R.C Williams, Director, Education Programme, Commonwealth Secretariat, 16 March, 1990

Part 7: Learning from Experience

105 A 'quantum increase in the quality of tertiary teaching and research is the first objective' in developing countries (World Bank, 1988: 78). In this respect staff development is gaining recognition for its contribution to the search for ways to improve the quality of teaching and research, to enhance the output of graduates, and to provide better services to their communities. Staff development is seen as the principal means to addressing the key problems that were identified in Part 2: overcoming shortages of trained academic personnel and enhancing the teaching-learning experience of students in developing countries.

106 This section attempts to draw together the principal findings which underpin the preceeding discussion and to outline directions in staff development taking into consideration the needs identified as germane to developing countries as well as the principles that should underscore any planning for the development of higher education in these countries. It is anticipated that these initiatives will strengthen existing practices in some cases and provide new directions in others to staff development in developing countries.

Determinants of staff development

107 No single prescriptive mode of staff development can be offered. Staff development plans have to be designed taking into consideration local context and the enabling environment for effective teaching and learning. The expressed needs of countries and institutions are different at different levels of development, circumscribed by the availability of resources. Thus the focus and the desired delivery mode will vary in countries according to national and local circumstances. Broadly speaking the factors that have determined the level of staff development organisation and participation may be summed up as follows:

- the extent of national development as well as presence of a well developed education system with a higher education sector that channels a good supply of quality entrants into the university
- the proportion of highly qualified academic personnel as evidenced by the size of the postgraduate population of institutions of higher education
- the degree of diversification of higher education as providing a pool of well qualified manpower in the newly emerging disciplines
- the extent of democratisation of higher education with the consequent shifting of focus from teaching to learning outcomes and student performance

- the availability of educational technology hardware to facilitate learning
- awareness of the role of university staff as being concerned with all aspects of teaching - content, teaching methods, curriculum reform, research and evaluation procedures.

Nature and scope of staff development

108 Every plan to establish or institute a staff development programme must consider that staff development cannot be seen as a discrete activity, independent of other sectors within higher education systems. Evidence points to institutions espousing **a total or comprehensive approach** where academic, management, administrative and technical support staff development are viewed within a facilitating infrastructure.

109 The critical role sensible programmes on staff development play in **building and sustaining institutional capacity** is recognised by institutions. **Successful staff development encompasses a spectrum of needs** ranging from providing the pool of candidates for recruitment into higher education institutions, enabling upgrading of qualifications, updating of base knowledge, acquiring and improving pedagogical skills as well as building capacity to take advantage of new technologies that are increasingly a part of higher education systems. Teaching and research in developing countries will suffer further disadvantages unless the staff equip themselves to handle the new technologies, especially in information dissemination and communication. To narrow the gap in access to new knowledge and to share as well as participate in international research projects and networks, staff in developing countries must be trained in the use of these technologies.

110 Staff development in developing countries must take into account strategies for improving staff motivation. There is no doubt that improving staff morale is complex but evidence supports the view that there is a range of low-cost morale improving activities that may be launched, taking account of the specific problems and hindrances faced by developing country institutions.

111 Staff development plays a vital role in **enabling women to enter and to advance in higher education** institutions into influential managerial and academic positions. The inclusion of women at all levels of the higher education system is crucial to human resource development in both the developed and developing worlds. Efforts need to be directed to mounting programmes that will enable women to seek higher education, be channelled into academic work and to be able to realise their full potential as members of the academic community. Support structures need to be put in place that will specifically enhance the participation and status of women in higher education.

Policy focus

112 The policy thrusts of higher education institutions vary according to situational characteristics. A broad-brush attempt to generalise leads to the conclusion that many developing countries especially at the lower levels of economic

development are preoccupied with recruiting sufficient numbers of indigenous staff with the required academic qualifications in a variety of disciplines. In these countries the higher education staffing policy becomes linked with school level policy where considerable attention is paid to building up school leavers with high attainment who form the talent pool from which local staff will be recruited. Associated with this category of policy are issues related to replacing expatriate staff with local personnel and retaining qualified staff.

113 Another group of policies may be linked to that group of developing country institutions where the majority or all staff are local with high-level academic qualifications. Policies in such situations are directed to the development of pedagogical, research and management skills with carefully-framed decisions on structure and programme organisation. Where financial resources are low and external pressure (such as those from governmental sources) is variable, there is little on the ground to attest to the value of such policies.

114 The third rough category of policies that emerge may be identified as those developed by higher education institutions which are staffed with well-qualified and experienced staff and which can renew this consistently from a large pool. As in the case of the second category, the policies home in on improving the quality of pedagogical, technical, research and management skills. They are distinguished from the second category by the degree of institutionalisation that is built into the policies such that skill improvement and qualitatively better student delivery systems have become an integral part of the university's functional life.

115 Some locate staff development squarely within a human resource development framework, likening university systems to corporate organisations. This view often carries with it the implication that implementation should be planned for the entire range of employees ranging from top management through academic staff to general staff.

Policy development and institutionalising staff development

116 Without support at the highest levels staff development will fail to become integrated into institutional strategic planning. Development and support for policy that is generated at the highest levels and linked to overall institutional strategic planning, for example, policy developed by the national or state government and overseen by Vice-Chancellors as an integral part of the functioning of the university, appear to be more efficacious than policies that are made in a piece-meal fashion and are the responsibility of personnel at lower levels of the institutional hierarchy.

117 Policies that seem to be working are directed to strategies which result in **institutionalising** staff development, that is, build in procedures that affect universities' functional processes such as course evaluation by different reference groups, rewarding professional development by weighting good teaching significantly for promotion exercises and not limiting it to academic qualifications and research publications. Such an approach appears to be able to bring about

substantive changes to an institutional/organisational culture that is highly resistant to change.

118 The pressure exerted by some governments for greater accountability, cost-effectiveness and for quality assurance in higher education have brought a positive impact on staff development. The process of establishing performance indicators which are acceptable to the academic community, external evaluation of their teaching and research performance, competitive allocation of research funds, all have had an effect on the perceptions and activities of the academic community who have been forced to examine/reflect on their own performance and are striving to seek ways of meeting the targets that they wish to maintain and are expected to achieve. With hindsight, it is now apparent that measures introduced for greater efficiency and cost-effectiveness have produced a staff more sensitive and responsive to their roles and their performance capabilities.

Structure and organisation of staff development programmes

119 A variety of structures and operational modes exist, some in early, experimental stages and others exhibiting more settled characteristics. Experiences suggest that systems/structures/ operational modes need to be tried out and consolidated over a period of time, building adequate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms into the operational process right at the outset. Organisational procedures perceived as appropriate in terms of staff needs should be consolidated and carefully disseminated throughout the institution with the aim of avoiding wasteful duplication by any department or unit.

120 Identifiable systemic structures have emerged as institutions implement staff development efforts. Characteristics vary according to size and maturity of the university, human, financial and material resource levels available, geographical attributes and other variables relevant to the particular higher education environment. Delivery structures range from single staff development officers, working on full or part-time basis, located within an administrative department such as the Personnel Office, to full-blown units or centres dedicated to staff development with a complement of academic and general staff.

121 Experience of institutions suggests that the most client-oriented programmes stemmed from structures whose activities and outcomes were closely monitored; whose programme planning activities were located within the institutional strategic planning machinery; from systems which shifted from a centre-based approach to more client-driven, department-based programmes; which built on appropriate existing local, national and international channels; and which remained sensitive to the fluidity of organisational set ups, demonstrating a willingness to be responsive to changing needs and circumstances.

Funding

122 Institutions have identified several strategies for **increasing the cost efficiency** of staff development programmes. These include better utilisation of buildings and equipment; improving management and accounting practices incorporating the use of management information and data systems; using distance education techniques to reduce unit costs; and having staff development activities taken into account in the institution's long term strategic planning exercises.

123 Staff development centres/units in many cases have increased their financial resources by **seeking additional funding sources**. Successful schemes include earnings from intellectual property; from consultancy work and the provision of specialised technical services; and from mounting co-operative programmes between higher education institutions and government agencies, industry and commerce.

124 Despite the growing conviction that staff development actitivies improve teaching quality and help to upgrade academic, professional and technical skills of staff, generally high cost implications make the case for access to financial resources a difficult one to fight. This is exacerbated by the paucity of significant impact/evaluation studies which could help to develop more convincing arguments to be presented to decision-making bodies.

Staff development delivery mechanisms

125 Practices in place recorded in Part 4 reflected to some extent the pattern of policy development in countries and institutions. Low-income countries stressed the need to build up their local core of qualified academics, not only as part of their policy to nationalise teaching staff but also in response to the establishment of new departments. A great many of these are in scientific and technological areas, seen as priority areas not only in terms of the pursuit of knowledge but also in terms of meeting national developmental requirements. A wide variety of award, scholarship and fellowship programmes obtain, resourced both locally and by bilateral/multilateral agencies. Procedural regulations covering leave and travel arrangements, sometimes accompanied by legally binding contracts to ensure retention of trained personnel, predominate in staff development practices in this group of institutions.

126 In countries where a large cadre of qualified staff exists and where interest has turned to upgrading initial training and initiating training programmes in pedagogical, research and management skills, scarce resources and the lack of linking staff development to the wider and crucial framework of strategic planning has tended to result in static programmes that respond to central directives, but not to specific requirements of the institution nor of its staff members. In such situations of low resources and few alternative programmes, staff development activities that are linked with promotion policies may prompt a routinised approach, verging dangerously on the dysfunctional. Such training programmes, if linked with promotion, may worryingly resemble a scramble for completing 'units' which may have little to do with improving academic, instructional or professional skills.

127 In countries where numbers of qualified personnel are readily available, where positive political will exists, where universities are relatively well-resourced and in a position to institute procedures and systems to reflect policy, there is considerable evidence that staff development practices have moved to practices which bring about individual and systemic change. Staff development priorities differ from country to country and from institution to institution. Variations in the general level of economic development, the size of the higher education sector, availability of postgraduate education and degree of diversification of higher education are some of the considerations that will influence the nature of staff development priorities. For instance, the primary need of the more advanced developing countries of Asia may be diversification and upgrading teaching and research at postgraduate level; the less developed countries of Africa may need to concentrate on schemes for increasing their pool of local qualified manpower.

Donor assistance for staff development

128 The role of donor agencies in assisting the formation of staff development structures and networks has been and will continue to be crucial, especially in an environment of continuing financial constraint. What is recognised is that organisational configurations/patterns and approaches to staff development are not directly transferable across physical and cultural boundaries. Any attempt to cross borders needs to be done in a way that allows sufficient room for dialogue and for a detailed analysis of needs exercise.

129 Donor assistance for staff development that brings the greatest benefits to developing country institutions needs to be managed and co-ordinated by the receiving countries themselves. Developing country institutions have in the past lacked the capacity to derive the best from the gestures of donor agencies many of which have carried out useful but often ad hoc activities in this field. These institutions/countries now need to be at the helm of their development, to identify their own needs and seek the contributions of donors that best meets their requirements, constantly watchful that the flow of benefits are to their advantage. Their problems are usually of a scale that can only be overcome by the concerted efforts of the institutions and the agencies working towards clearly defined targets.

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Table 1 Student enrolment in universities for selected countries: 1975-89

Country	Total no. of students 1975	Total no. of students 1979	Total no. of students 1980	Total no. of students 1984	Total no. of students 1985	Total no. of students 1989	Average % increase/ decrease 1975-79	Average % increase/ decrease 1980-84	Average % increase/ decrease 1985-89	Average % increase/ decrease 1975-89
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES										
Australia (a)	191961	248568	253148	263072	270973	375701	5.9	0.8	7.7	6.4
Belgium	83360	115957		120141	135738	139244	7.8		0.5	4.5
Canada	102710	597120	623590		950685	988229	96.3		0.8	57.5
Finland	10051	81828	82933		91647	120485	142.8		6.3	73.3
Italy		1067782	1086331	1150759		1324884		1.2		*2.19
Japan	331509	1895217	1885724	1885343		2174247	94.3	0.0		37.1
Sweden	122244	73574				93946	-8.0			-1.5
Switzerland		58061	60453	71105	73233	80232		3.5	1.9	*3.47
United Kingdom	431987	559129	592484	650928	678789	715699	5.9	2.0	1.1	**5.05
Singapore (b)	8228	8767	12148	14222	16838	23499	1.3	3.4	7.9	12.4
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES										
Botswana	1212	953	1087	1405	1776	2837	-4.3	5.9	12.0	8.9
Malaysia	17237		24190	34885	38305	54265		8.8	8.3	14.3
Mauritius	1303	802	730	430	555	1325	-7.7	-8.2	27.8	0.1
Papua New Guinea	3074	2856	2999	2672	2884	3555	-1.4	-2.2	4.7	1.0
Swaziland		1451	1188	1335	1500	1828		2.5	4.4	2.4
Zimbabwe	1901	1931	2240	4131	5886	9017	0.3	16.9	10.6	25.0
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES										
Bangladesh	163094	147198	146775	155287	265825	278959	-2.0	1.2	1.0	4.7
Ghana	6088	8588	7988	7955	8325	9220	8.2	-0.1	2.2	3.4
Guyana	2143	1554	1580	1619	1598	2187	-5.5	0.5	7.4	0.1
India	2234593	2618228	2648579	3704248	3538930	3947922	3.4	8.0	2.3	5.1
Kenya	4542	7340	7791	8510	8749	22931	12.3	1.9	32.3	27.0
Nigeria	25882		57738	101945	110443	172404		15.3	11.2	37.7
Sri Lanka	14734	16004	21086	18919	18913	29781	1.7	-2.1	11.5	6.8
Tanzania	2451	2736	2678	3915	3799	3343	2.3	9.2	-2.4	2.4
Uganda	3721	3940	4353	5042	5042	5379	1.2	3.2	1.3	3.0

NOTE: *1979-89
** *1975-87*

Source: (a) UNESCO, Statistical Yearbooks 1977-80, '84, '87-'91 (b) Commonwealth Universities Yearbooks 1975, '81, '86, '90 and '91

Table 2 University staff increase/decrease in selected countries: 1975-89

Country	No. of university staff 1975	No. of university staff 1980	No. of university staff 1985	No. of university staff 1989	Av. % incr/ decrease 1975-80	Av. % incr/ decrease 1980-85	Av. % incr/ decrease 1985-89	Av. % incr/ decrease 1975-89	Av. % incr/ decrease 1980-89
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES									
Australia	19920	22134	22659	25032	1.9	0.4	2.1	1.7	1.3
France	40512	--	45211	46338	--	--	0.5	1.0	--
Japan	149349	168739	191533	210791	2.2	2.3	2.0	2.7	2.5
United Kingdom	32208	34297	31412	*34242	1.1	-1.4	*2.3	*0.5	*-0.02
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES									
Brazil	92546	109788	*117211	128029	3.1	*1.0	**2.3	2.5	1.7
Iran	6253	--	10229	14380	--	--	8.1	8.7	--
Korea, Republic	15317	21173	34300	33661	6.4	10.3	0.4	8.0	5.9
Botswana	56	140	142	250	25.0	0.2	15.2	23.1	7.9
Colombia	19821	26930	35890	10426	6.0	5.6	-14.2	-3.2	-6.1
Jordan	344	--	1295	1738	--	--	6.8	27.0	--
Malaysia	--	3299	4718	*4211	--	7.2	-2.7	--	*3.1
Mexico	45025	72742	108002		10.3	--	--	--	--
Peru	10844	14727	20109	26245	6.0	6.1	6.1	9.5	7.8
Philippines	--	--	50821	56348	--	--	*2.2	--	--
Zimbabwe	--	--	--	558	--	--	--	--	--
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES									
Bangladesh	*2103	2421	2705	2901	*3	2.0	1.4	2.5	2.0
Ghana	963	*1091	1097	700	**1.9	**0.1	-7.2	-1.8	**4
India	--	--	225243	249068	--	--	2.1	--	--
Kenya	--	--	--	1015	--	--	--	--	--
Tanzania	434	*893	1025	939	**15.1	**3.0	-1.7	7.8	0.6
NOTE:	*1976	*1981	*1986	*1988	*1976-80 **1975-81	*1980-86 **1981-85	*1985-88 **1986-89	*1975-88	*1980-88 **1981-89

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbooks 1987, '90, '91

Table 3 Higher education student population as a percentage of the 20-24 year group in selected countries

Country	1970	1975	1980	1985	1988	1989
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES						
Australia	16.6	24.0	25.4	27.6	40.4	31.6
Belgium	17.5	21.3	25.2	31.2	34.2	
Canada	34.6	36.9	36.6	55.5	62.3	65.6
Finland	13.4	27.2	32.1	33.8	40.1	43.0
France	19.5	24.4	25.5	29.8	34.5	37.2
Hong Kong	7.3	10.1	10.8			
Italy	16.7	25.1	27.1	25.7	27.3	28.6
Japan	17.0	24.6	30.2	28.7	30.1	30.7
Sweden	21.4	28.8	36.9	31.3		31.3
Switzerland	10.0	13.6	17.9	21.2	24.4	26.2
United Kingdom	14.1	18.9	20.0	21.8	23.5	
USA	49.4	58.2	57.1	57.7		
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES						
Swaziland	0.6	2.5	3.9	3.7		
Botswana		0.7	14.5	2.1	2.8	3.0
Brazil	5.1	11.0	11.9		11.1	11.2
Colombia	4.7	7.7	10.2	12.6		13.7
Congo	1.8	2.9	5.6	6.6	5.7	
Ecuador	7.9	27.8	37.1		25.2	
Egypt	8.0	13.7	14.7	20.3	19.6	
Iran	3.1	5.0		4.8	6.9	
Jordan			26.6			
Korea, Republic	8.0	10.3	15.8	34.2	36.8	38.0
Malaysia			4.1	6.0	6.6	
Mauritius	2.6	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.9	2.0
Mexico	5.9	10.3	14.0	15.6	15.2	14.6
Morocco	1.5	3.2	6.0	8.8	10.4	10.5
Papua New Guinea	0.5	1.2	1.0			
Peru	11.1	14.6	19.4	24.3	30.7	32.1
Philippines	19.8	18.5	26.1	26.9	28.2	
Senegal	1.4	1.9	2.8	2.4	2.9	3.0
Thailand	2.7	3.4	13.5	19.6		16.1
Zimbabwe	0.2	1.6	1.3	4.0	5.5	6.1
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES						
Bangladesh	2.3	2.5	3.0	5.0	3.7	3.6
China	0.1	0.6	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.7
Ghana	0.9	1.1		1.5	1.5	1.5
Guyana	2.0	3.8	2.6	2.6		
India	6.2	8.8		6.4		
Kenya	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.6	1.6
Nigeria	0.5	0.8	2.2	3.3		
Pakistan	2.5	1.9		5.1		4.8
Sri Lanka	1.2	1.3	2.8	3.8		4.2
Tanzania	0.2	0.2		0.3		0.2
Uganda	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.8	1.0	

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbooks 1980, '85, '87 and '91

Table 4 Higher degree student enrolment in universities for selected countries: 1975-89

Country	1975			1980			1985			1989		
	Total no. of students	Higher degree students	% Higher degree students	Total no. of students	Higher degree students	% Higher degree students	Total no. of students	Higher degree students	% Higher degree students	Total no. of students	Higher degree students	% Higher degree students
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES												
Australia (a)	191961	36753	19.2	253148	40020	15.8	270973	26566	9.8	375701	69995	18.6
Belgium	83360	7369	8.8				135738			139244		
Canada	102710	14106	13.7	623590	76695	12.3	950685	90152	9.5	988229	100613	10.2
Finland	10051	555	5.5	82933	5454	6.6	91647	7163	7.8	120485	15075	12.5
Italy				1086331	62673	5.8				1324884	59619	4.5
Japan	331509	16387	4.9	1885724	53992	2.9				2174247	85263	3.9
Sweden	122244	12510	10.2							93946	13080	13.9
Switzerland				60453	8213	13.6	73233	11130	15.2	80232	14488	18.1
United Kingdom	431987	86086	19.9	592484	100826	17.0	678789	117864	17.4	715699	129818	18.1
Singapore (b)	8228	324	3.9	12148	332	2.7	16838	966	5.7	23499	2141	9.1
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES												
Botswana	1212	3	0.3	1087			1776	48	2.7	2837		
Malaysia	17237	563	3.3	24190	702	2.9	38305	2116	5.5	54265	4363	8.0
Mauritius	1303	0	0.0	730	14	1.9	555	93	16.8	1325	11	0.8
Papua New Guinea	3074	143	4.7	2999	61	2.0	2884	99	3.4	3555		
Swaziland				1188	0	0.0	1500			1828	6	0.3
Zimbabwe	1901	362	19.0	2240	378	16.9	5886	1353	23.0	9017	737	8.2
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES												
Bangladesh	163094	9099	5.6	146775	12198	8.3	265825	15145	5.7	278959	35903	12.9
Ghana	6088	344	5.7	7988	461	5.8	8325	408	4.9	9220		
Guyana	2143			1580	15	1.0	1598	15	0.9	2187		
India	2234593	214032	9.6	2648579	294821	11.1	3538930	375126	10.6	3947922	418480	10.6
Kenya	4542	650	14.3	7791	102	1.3	8749	1415	16.2	22931	1473	6.4
Nigeria	25882	1407	5.4	57738			110443			172404	11280	6.5
Sri Lanka	14734	164	1.1	21086	1022	4.9	18913			29781		
Tanzania	2451	126	5.1	2678	450	16.8	3799	226	6.0	3343	103	3.1
Uganda	3721	309	8.3	4353	19	0.4	5042			5379	523	9.7

Source: (a) UNESCO, Statistical Yearbooks 1977-80, '84, '87-'91 (b) Commonwealth Universities Yearbooks, 1975, '81, '86, '90, '91

Table 5 Distribution of academic staff in higher education, by qualification, in selected countries: 1989/90

Country and University	First Degree		Masters Degree		Doctorate		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES								
AUSTRALIA								
University of Sydney	433	22.7	475	24.9	1001	52.4	1909	100
La Trobe University	227	29.6	140	18.3	400	52.1	767	100
University of New England	80	15.1	127	24.0	322	61.1	529	100
University of Melbourne	198	17.0	310	26.7	654	56.3	1162	100
Total	938	21.5	1052	24.1	2377	54.4	4367	100
BRITAIN								
University of Birmingham	163	9.8	631	38.0	868	52.2	1662	100
University of Edinburgh	100	6.7	501	33.5	893	59.8	1494	100
University of Exeter	73	12.4	164	27.8	352	59.8	589	100
University of Keele	52	12.9	112	27.7	240	59.4	404	100
University of Sussex	54	11.0	80	16.3	358	72.8	492	100
University of Ulster	245	31.7	231	30.0	296	38.3	772	100
Total	687	12.7	1719	31.8	3007	55.5	5413	100
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES								
MALAYSIA								
University of Agriculture, Malaysia	114	14.5	482	61.2	192	24.3	788	100
University of Malaya	64	5.9	579	53.6	437	40.5	1080	100
National University of Malaysia	83	8.1	532	52.0	409	39.9	1024	100
University of Science, Malaysia	171	19.2	317	35.6	402	45.2	890	100
University of Technology	434	38.9	568	50.9	114	10.2	1116	100
Total	866	17.7	2478	50.6	1554	31.7	4898	100
PAPUA NEW GUINEA								
University of Papua New Guinea	63	24.2	115	44.2	82	31.6	260	100
ZIMBABWE								
University of Zimbabwe	46	6.7	331	47.8	315	45.5	692	100

Table 5 continued

Country and University	First Degree Number	%	Masters Degree Number	%	Doctorate Number	%	Total Number	%
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES								
BANGLADESH								
Bangladesh Agricultural University	9	2.3	176	45.0	206	52.7	391	100
Bangladesh Univ. of Engin & Techn.	93	24.5	165	43.4	122	32.1	380	100
University of Chittagong	7	1.7	262	63.3	145	35.0	414	100
University of Dhaka	31	2.7	664	58.6	439	38.7	1134	100
Jahangirnagan University	--	--	137	62.0	84	38.0	221	100
University of Rajshashi	2	0.4	349	66.3	175	33.3	526	100
Total	142	4.6	1753	57.2	1171	38.2	3066	100
INDIA								
Banaras Hindu University	30	2.3	253	19.6	1007	78.1	1290	100
University of Calcutta	38	4.9	192	24.7	547	70.4	777	100
University of Delhi	13	1.8	144	20.1	560	78.1	717	100
Karnatak University	11	2.1	244	47.5	259	50.4	514	100
Total	92	2.8	833	25.3	2373	71.9	3298	100
KENYA								
University of Nairobi	110	9.5	587	50.5	465	40.0	1162	100
Kenyatta University College	14	3.1	259	57.0	181	39.9	454	100
Total	124	7.7	846	52.3	646	40.0	1616	100
NIGERIA								
Bayero University	53	16.6	146	45.8	120	37.6	319	100
University of Ibadan	19	2.0	285	30.7	625	67.3	929	100
University of Lagos	32	4.8	255	38.0	384	57.2	671	100
Obafemi Awolowo University	48	4.9	361	37.2	563	57.9	972	100
Total	152	5.3	1047	36.2	1692	58.5	2891	100
TANZANIA								
University of Daressalam	61	8.7	290	41.4	350	49.9	701	100

Source: Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, 1991

Table 6 Distribution of academic staff in higher education, by post held, in selected countries: 1989/90

Country and university	Depts	Tutors		Lecturers		Sr. Lect-Ass. Profs		Professors		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES											
AUSTRALIA											
University of Sydney	129	160	8.2	795	40.9	809	41.6	181	9.3	1945	100
La Trobe University	45	97	12.6	259	33.7	367	47.7	46	6.0	769	100
University of New England	38	46	8.5	202	37.5	243	45.1	48	8.9	539	100
University of Melbourne	62	6	0.5	430	36.8	594	50.8	140	11.9	1170	100
University of Queensland		231	19.3	323	26.9	527	44.0	118	9.8	1199	100
Total		540	9.6	2009	35.7	2540	452.0	533	9.5	5622	100
BRITAIN											
University of Birmingham	65	62	3.7	691	41.4	741	44.4	175	10.5	1669	100
University of Edinburgh	101			755	50.3	560	37.3	187	12.4	1502	100
University of Exeter	29	11	1.9	321	54.1	199	33.6	62	10.4	593	100
University of Keele	31	3	0.7	211	51.8	141	34.7	52	12.8	407	100
University of Sussex		1	0.2	272	55.2	143	29.0	77	15.6	493	100
Total		77	1.6	2250	48.2	1784	38.3	553	11.9	4664	100
GERMANY											
Technical University of Lüneburg	8	0	0.0	0	0.0	524	82.4	112	17.6	636	100
Martin Luther Univ. of Halle-Wittenberg	22	0	0.0	0	0.0	2067	82.0	455	18.0	2522	100
Otto von Guericke Univ. Magdeburg	10	0	0.0	0	0.0	614	78.7	166	21.3	780	100
Rhenish-Westphalian Technical Univ.	23	0	0.0	5122	64.5	2823	35.5	0	0.0	7845	100
University of Bamberg	11	0	0.0	30	9.2	181	55.7	114	35.1	325	100
Johann W. Goethe Univ. of Frankfurt	21	0	0.0	22	1.7	278	21.6	985	76.7	1285	100
University of Hamburg	25	0	0.0	1877	61.5	264	8.7	909	29.8	3050	100
Total		0	0.0	7051	42.6	6751	40.8	2741	16.6	16543	100

Table 6 continued

Country and university	Depts	Tutors		Lecturers		Sr. Lect-Ass. Profs		Professors		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES											
JAPAN											
Hiroshima University	24	792	44.8	127	7.2	380	21.5	468	26.5	1767	100
Kumamoto University	15	372	38.6	115	11.9	0	0.0	478	49.5	965	100
Hokkaido University	55	806	40.2	149	7.4	521	26.0	528	26.4	2004	100
Ochanomizu University	4	35	19.1	11	6.0	57	31.2	80	43.7	183	100
Okayama University	27	472	38.8	0	0.0	406	33.3	340	27.9	1218	100
Total		2477	40.4	402	6.5	1364	22.2	1894	30.9	6137	100
USA*											
Harvard University		1488	37.8	0	0.0	1650	41.9	802	20.3	3940	100
Miami University		138	15.7	0	0.0	489	55.5	254	28.8	881	100
Michigan State University		179	7.2	0	0.0	1094	43.9	1221	48.9	2494	100
University of California, Berkley		0	0.0	192	12.6	259	17.1	1068	70.3	1519	100
University of California, Los Angeles		0	0.0	306	18.8	267	16.4	1058	64.9	1631	100
University of Tulsa		20	6.7	0	0.0	193	64.5	86	28.8	299	100
Virginia Commonwealth University		133	9.4	0	0.0	924	65.6	352	25.0	1409	100
Total		1958	16.1	498	4.1	4876	40.0	4841	39.8	12173	100
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES											
BRAZIL											
Federal University of Bahia	27	126	8.5	522	35.2	782	52.8	52	3.5	1482	100
University of Rio de Janeiro	27	87	3.4	828	32.0	1374	53.2	296	11.4	2585	100
Federal University of Fluminense	25	4907	72.5	646	9.6	1038	15.3	174	2.6	6765	100
Sacred Heart University	4	5	4.8	20	19.0	30	28.6	50	47.6	105	100
Total		5125	46.9	2016	18.4	3224	29.5	572	5.2	10937	100
IRAN											
Ferdowsi University of Mashdad	6	0	0.0	114	42.2	149	55.6	7	2.6	270	100
University of Tehran	22	0	0.0	271	30.8	511	58.1	98	11.1	880	100
Esfahan University of Technology	9	0	0.0	124	51.7	116	48.3	0	0.0	240	100
Total		0	0.0	509	36.6	776	55.8	105	7.6	1390	100

Table 6 continued

Country and university	Depts	Tutors		Lecturers		Sr. Lect·Ass. Profs		Professors		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES											
IRAQ											
University of Basrah	12	259	38.6	324	48.4	81	12.1	6	0.9	670	100
EGYPT											
Assiut University	18	1339	56.2	480	20.1	258	10.8	307	12.9	2384	100
Tanta University	12	1523	80.6	0	0.0	195	10.3	171	9.1	1889	100
The American University in Cairo	14	54	34.8	15	9.7	37	23.9	49	31.6	155	100
Total		2916	65.8	495	11.2	490	11.1	527	11.9	4428	100
JORDAN											
Bethlehem University	6	64	59.3	14	13.0	25	23.1	5	4.6	108	100
University of Jordan	15	114	17.6	46	7.1	459	70.7	30	4.6	649	100
An-Najah National University	8	112	50.7	0	0.0	108	48.9	1	0.4	221	100
Yarmouk University	14	104	22.7	35	7.7	298	65.2	20	4.4	457	100
Birzeit University	5	104	48.8	9	4.2	95	44.6	5	2.4	213	100
Total		498	30.2	104	6.3	985	59.8	61	3.7	1648	100
MALAYSIA											
University of Agriculture, Malaysia	39	92	11.6	586	74.3	89	11.3	22	2.8	789	100
University of Malaya	61	58	5.3	579	53.3	377	34.7	73	6.7	1087	100
National University of Malaysia	69	96	9.4	708	69.1	183	17.9	37	3.6	1024	100
University of Science, Malaysia		171	18.9	509	56.3	173	19.1	51	5.6	904	100
University of Technology		391	35.0	625	56.0	95	8.5	5	0.5	1116	100
Total		808	16.5	3007	61.1	917	18.6	188	3.8	4920	100
PAPUA NEW GUINEA											
University of Papua New Guinea		62	23.3	126	47.4	59	22.2	19	7.1	266	100
PHILIPPINES											
Bicol University	8	400	67.3	0	0.0	185	31.2	9	1.5	594	100
Ateneo De Manila University	3	54	46.6	0	0.0	44	37.9	18	15.5	116	100
Mariano Marcos State University	12	395	80.8	0	0.0	86	17.6	8	1.6	489	100
Saint Paul University	8	58	84.1	0	0.0	9	13.0	2	2.9	69	100
Technology Univ. of the Philippines	6	199	65.4	0	0.0	92	30.3	13	4.3	304	100
Total		1106	70.3	0	0.0	416	26.5	50	3.2	1572	100

Table 6 continued

Country and university	Depts	Tutors		Lecturers		Sr. Lect-Ass. Profs		Professors		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES											
THAILAND											
Chulalongkorn University	26	0	0.0	761	31.7	1541	64.2	99	4.1	2401	100
Kasetsart University	17	0	0.0	688	50.2	669	48.8	13	1.0	1370	100
Prince of Songhhla University	13	0	0.0	805	77.9	223	21.6	5	0.5	1033	100
Siam Technics University	5	158	98.8	0	0.0	1	0.6	1	0.6	160	100
Thammasat University	14	0	0.0	251	41.5	341	56.4	13	2.1	605	100
Total		158	2.8	2505	45.0	2775	49.8	131	2.4	5569	100
ZIMBABWE											
University of Zimbabwe	70			509	73.5	143	20.7	40	5.8	692	100
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES											
BANGLADESH											
Bangladesh Agricultural University	47	3	0.8	28	6.0	272	70.7	88	22.5	391	100
Bangladesh Univ. of Engin. & Techn.	17			118	30.6	202	52.5	65	16.9	385	100
University of Chittagong	23	5	1.2	52	12.8	307	75.6	42	10.4	406	100
University of Dhaka	44	18	1.6	276	23.4	646	57.7	194	17.3	1134	100
Jahangirnagan University	16			39	17.7	143	64.5	39	17.7	221	100
University of Rajshashi	29			78	14.8	355	67.5	93	17.7	526	100
Total		26	0.8	591	19.3	1925	62.9	521	17.0	3063	100
CHINA											
Anhui University	18	416	45.2	310	33.6	163	17.7	32	3.5	921	100
East China Normal University	24	0	0.0	645	53.6	431	35.8	128	10.6	1204	100
Heilongjiang University	22	464	52.9	234	26.7	152	17.3	27	3.1	877	100
Zhejiang University of Agriculture	16	321	40.1	259	32.4	173	21.6	47	5.9	800	100
Zhejiang University	20	674	28.0	1128	46.9	511	21.3	92	3.8	2405	100
Total		1875	30.2	2576	41.5	1430	23.0	326	5.3	6207	100

Table 6 continued

Country and university	Depts	Tutors		Lecturers		Sr. Lect-Ass. Profs		Professors		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES											
INDIA											
Banaras Hindu University	140			482	37.3	508	39.4	301	23.3	1291	100
University of Calcutta	73			292	37.0	269	34.1	228	28.9	789	100
University of Delhi	46			160	22.3	298	41.6	259	36.1	717	100
Karnatak University	71	14	2.7	174	33.8	265	51.5	62	12.0	515	100
Total		14	0.4	1108	33.4	1340	40.5	850	25.7	3312	100
KENYA											
University of Nairobi	76	207	17.5	559	47.2	350	29.6	68	5.7	1184	100
Kenyatta University College	33	88	19.4	207	45.6	143	31.5	16	3.5	454	100
Total		295	18.0	766	46.8	493	30.1	84	5.1	1638	100
NIGERIA											
Bayero University	36	10	3.1	136	42.6	165	51.8	8	2.5	319	100
University of Ibadan	89	91	9.8	314	33.8	347	37.4	176	19.0	928	100
University of Lagos	70	63	9.4	183	27.3	316	47.1	109	16.2	671	100
Obafemi Awolowo University	92	140	14.4	326	33.5	394	40.6	112	11.5	972	100
Total		304	10.5	959	33.2	1222	42.3	405	14.0	2890	100
TANZANIA											
University of Daressalam	68	171	24.4	220	31.4	268	38.2	42	6.0	701	100
OTHER ECONOMIES											
CIS (USSR)											
Vilnius V. Kapsukas State University	17	0	0.0	409	33.7	675	55.6	130	10.7	1214	100

Source: International Handbook of Universities, 1989 and Commonwealth University Yearbook, 1991

Table 7 Distribution of students in higher education, by field of study, in selected countries: 1991

Country	Educ.	Hum. & Art	Soc. Sc. & Law	Nat. Sc. & Eng.	Medic.	Agric.	Others	Total %
HIGH-INCOME ECONOMIES								
Australia	26.1	20.9	19.4	20.3	11.2	2.1	0	100
Belgium	16.4	9	34.5	23.6	14.1	1.4	1	100
Britain	8.3	12.5	30.5	28.1	16.8	0.9	2.7	100
Canada	11.3	11.4	40.2	18.4	10.9	2.2	5.6	100
France	5.4	23.7	30.1	27.4	9.9	1.2	2.3	100
Hong Kong	13.1	6.6	32	43.9	2.8	0	1.6	100
Italy	2.8	14.4	29.2	21.2	25.8	3.1	3.5	100
Japan	10.2	21.2	37	19.9	5.2	2.6	3.9	100
Sweden	16.4	2.6	14.1	35.6	23.1	1.6	6.6	100
Switzerland	5	17.3	33.9	25.6	15.4	2.8	0	100
U. S. A	9.8	7.8	38.9	19.8	10	1.6	12.1	100
MIDDLE-INCOME ECONOMIES								
Botswana	35.8	24.5	36.7	3	0	0	0	100
Brazil	22.7	10.8	37.7	12.9	9.4	2	4.5	100
Congo	36.8	15.9	27.4	13.3	6.6	0	0	100
Ecuador	44.6	1.7	22.3	9.5	13.5	8.1	0.3	100
Egypt	16.4	15.3	38.1	12.4	9.3	6.9	1.6	100
Iran	13.3	6.8	12.5	29.6	32	5.8	0	100
Jordan	7.6	49	18.1	16.7	6.4	1.6	0.6	100
Malaysia	9.2	8.3	44.5	26.7	2.6	4.5	4.2	100
Mauritius	22.5	0	40	22.8	6.3	8.3	0.1	100
Mexico	25.5	1	32.7	27	11	1.9	0.9	100
Papua New Guinea	21.1	13.3	14.5	15.1	13.4	13.6	9	100
Philippines	8.9	0.5	37.8	36.9	6	3.1	6.8	100
Senegal	5.5	34.5	35.7	18.4	3.7	1	1.2	100
Swaziland	4.9	10.8	45.8	15.7	0	22.8	0	100
Thailand	24.1	4.9	45	13.8	5.8	6.1	0.3	100
Zimbabwe	67.8	5.3	16.8	4.1	4.1	1.8	0.1	100

Table 7 continued

Country	Educ.	Hum. & Art	Soc. Sc. & Law	Nat. Sc. & Eng.	Medic.	Agric.	Others	Total %
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES								
Bangladesh	4.1	52.6	25.2	14.9	1.8	1.2	0.2	100
China	30	6.6	12	38.3	7	5.4	0.7	100
Ghana	2.2	40.5	20	22.6	6	8.7	0	100
Guyana	21.9	4.1	13.9	14.6	5.1	18.2	22.2	100
India	11	40.3	26.9	18.2	2	0.9	0.7	100
Kenya	30.7	13	17.6	18.4	8.9	11.4	0	100
Nigeria	26.1	16	28	18.5	6.7	4.7	0	100
Sri Lanka	25.3	0.5	22.8	47.4	2.1	1.7	0.2	100
Uganda	52.1	4.9	17.4	16.3	2.8	4.7	1.8	100

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1991